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A Voyage to the South Atlantic and round Cape Horn into the Pacific Ocean, for the Purpose of extending the Spermaceti Whale Fisheries, and other Objects of Commerce, by ascertaining the Ports, Bays, Harbours, and Anchoring Births, in certain Islands and Coasts in those Seas at which the Ships of the British Merchants might be refitted. Undertaken and performed by Captain James Colnett, of the Royal Navy, in the Ship Rattler. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. White. 1798.

THE merits and the misfortunes of captain Colnett equally interest us. He was the companion of captain Cook; and, if the voyage of Vancouver may be considered as a supplement to those of Cook, the present volume is a proper appendage to those which we last reviewed in the line of discovery. We are sorry, however, that the whole of the western coast of America has not been examined with the minute accuracy which was employed in the higher and middle latitudes. Below Brewer's island, in lat. 41° south, there is an extensive archipelago; and the coast to the southward is broken into numerous islands little known, in the examination of which the activity of captain Colnett, or the persevering industry of Mr. Whidbey, might be usefully employed, if Spanish jealousy would permit.

The great object of this voyage, in addition to its commercial views, was to examine those islands of the Pacific Ocean, in the lower latitudes or the southern hemisphere, which might be useful for the South-Sea whale-fishers, either for the purpose of reparation or of refreshment. In the introduction, captain Colnett gives a short account of his professional life, and of the circumstances which led to the present voyage; and we find, from his experience, additional reasons for establishing settlements to the east of China, on some of the independent islands which are numerous in that part of the world.

Our author failed in the beginning of January, 1793; but,
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for some time, we find nothing to detain us. At length he passed the coast of Brasil in search of l'Isle Grande, said to have been discovered, in 1675, by Ant. la Roche, a native of England. La Pérouse denied the existence of this island, for his usual reason, that *he* could not find it; and, indeed, captain Colnett was not more fortunate; yet, from the numerous marks of land from lat. 43° to 44° south, long. $33^{\circ} 53'$ west, there is reason to think that some island exists, especially as La Roche's other accounts of land have been confirmed. From the number of whales, seen in this part, our author thinks that such an island would afford a spot for a valuable settlement.

The following account of a storm which occurred early in the voyage, contains some remarkable observations.

* The autumnal equinoctial gale came on us the twenty-third of March, and held upwards of four days, with frequent claps of thunder, accompanied by lightening, hail and rain. It blew as hard as I ever remember, and, for several hours, we could not venture to shew any sail. At the same time a whirlwind or typhoon arose to windward, from whence in one of the squalls, two balls of fire, about the size of cricket balls, fell on board. One of them struck the anchor which was housed on the fore-castle, and bursting into particles, struck the chief mate and one of the seamen, who fell down in excruciating tortures. On examining them several holes appeared to have been burned in their cloaths which were of flannel: and in various parts of their bodies there were small wounds, as if made with an hot iron of the size of a fixpenny piece. I immediately ordered some of the crew to perform the operation of the Otaheiteans, called Roro mee, which caused a considerable abatement of their pains, but several days elapsed before they were perfectly recovered. The other ball struck the funnel of the caboose, made an explosion equal to that of a swivel gun, and burned several holes in the mizen-stay-sail and main-sail which were handed. At the height of it the barometer was 28° . The alarm which we may be supposed to have experienced during the whirlwind, was not allayed by the noise of the birds, who, not considering the ship to be a place of safety, as is the case in common gales, appeared, by the violence of their shrieks and the irregularity of their flight, to be sensible of the danger: for as the squall approached them numbers plunged into the sea, to avoid it; while those who could not escape its influence, were whirled in a spiral manner out of sight in an instant. It very fortunately reached us only within two cables length of each beam, and so passed a-head of the ship to the north. From our first seeing, to our losing sight of it, was about half an hour. In this gale, I lost the greatest part of my live stock, together with all the vegetables that hung at the stern of the ship.' P. 14.

The directions for doubling Cape Horn are very useful. The captain is of opinion that a settlement on Staten Island, or in its neighbourhood, would be beneficial in many respects.

After doubling Cape Horn, he visited Wager Island; and he describes the entrance to its bay more correctly than any former navigator. An observation of Mr. Falkner, who, though an Englishman, was seduced by the jesuits and resided many years in South-America as a brother of the order, deserves attention. He declares, as his decided opinion, that it would prove very disadvantageous to the Spaniards, if the English were to form any settlement to the south of Brasil, there being several rivers which communicate with the western side of America; and he gives a particular description of the bay of St. Fondo, and the river Colorado. It may here be observed, that, on the disturbance at Nootka, the Spaniards colonised many new spots, and formed an extensive plan of colonisation, within which even the Sandwich islands were included.

Mocha island is in lat. $38^{\circ} 24'$ and long. 75° . It abounded, when visited by Mr. Wafer, with provisions of every kind; but these were destroyed by the Spaniards to prevent its being an asylum for the buccaneers. Of the sheep of this island, four feet and a half high, which, Mr. Wafer informs us, will carry burthens, and may be used for riding, a description is given in a note.

The islands of St. Felix and St. Ambrose afford no refreshments and contain no harbours. They are surrounded by dangerous reefs; yet our author thinks that the latter might be useful as a rendezvous in war or peace. It, however, wants wood, water, and vegetables. These islands are in lat. $26^{\circ} 13'$ and $19'$, long. $79^{\circ} 26'$ and $4'$ respectively.

Of the Gallipago islands, captain Colnett saw only, in this part of his voyage, the two easternmost, which he called the isles of Chatham and Hood. The climate, though under the equator, is most delightful; and wood, vegetables, and turtles, are numerous.—The following observations are worthy of notice.

‘ I was very much perplexed, to form a satisfactory conjecture, how the small birds, which appeared to remain in one spot, supported themselves without water; but the party on their return informed me, that, having exhausted all their water, and reposing beneath a prickly pear-tree, almost choaked with thirst, they observed an old bird in the act of supplying three young ones with drink, by squeezing the berry of a tree into their mouths. It was about the size of a pea, and contained a watery juice, of an acid, but not unpleasant, taste. The bark of the tree, produces a con-

siderable quantity of moisture, and, on being eaten, allays the thirst. In dry seasons, the land tortoise is seen to gnaw and suck it. The leaf of this tree, is like that of the bay tree, the fruit grows like cherries, whilst the juice of the bark dyes the flesh a deep purple, and emits a grateful odor: a quality in common with the greater part of the trees and plants in this island; though it is soon lost, when the branches are separated from the trunks, or stems. The leaves of these trees also absorb the copious dews, which fall during the night, but in larger quantities at the full and change of the moon; the birds then pierce them with their bills, for the moisture they retain, and which, I believe, they also procure from the various plants and ever-greens. But when the dews fail in the summer season, thousands of these creatures perish; for, on our return hither, we found great numbers dead in their nests, and some of them almost fledged. It may, however, be remarked, that this curious instinctive mode, of finding a substitute for water, is not peculiar, to the birds of this island; as nature has provided them with a similar resource in the fountain tree, that flourishes on the Isle Ferro, one of the Canaries; and several other trees and canes, which, Churchill tells us in his voyages, are to be found, on the mountains of the Phillipine [*Philippine*] Islands.

‘There is no tree, in this island, which measures more than twelve inches in circumference, except the prickly pear, some of which were three feet in the girth, and fifty feet in height. The torch thistle, which was the next in height, contains a liquid in its heart, which the birds drank, when it was cut down. They sometimes, even extracted it from the young trees, by piercing the trunks with their bills.’ p. 53.

When our navigator (in May 1794) returned to the Gallipagos, he examined many of the islands of that groupe; and he found a convenient bay to the north-west of Lord Chat-ham's Isle, where various refreshments were found. Thence he proceeded to the south and the west, till he reached the extremity of the groupe. The islands on the west, and indeed many of the others, appear to be volcanic; and, though deep bays seem to afford shelter, there are few convenient anchorages or harbours. On the north-west, the spermaceti whales are very numerous; but, from the force of the currents, the fishery is not so advantageous as it would otherwise be, since the ship drifts far to the westward, during the operation of cutting up the whale. From the north, captain Colnett visited one of the internal isles, and anchored in a commodious bay at James Island. This was a favourite spot of the buccaneers; and the remains of their occasional residence are still visible. It is a place well adapted for a settlement.—From this part of the volume, we will gratify our readers with an extract.

‘We did not land on either of them’ (Albemarle or James's

Island). ' In this expedition we saw great numbers of penguins, and three or four hundred seals. There were also small birds, with a red breast, such as I have seen at the New Hebrides; and others resembling the Java sparrow, in shape and size, but of a black plumage; the male was the darkest, and had a very delightful note. At every place where we landed on the Western side, we might have walked for miles, through long grass and beneath groves of trees. It only wanted a stream to compose a very charming landscape. This isle appears to have been a favourite resort of the Buccaneers, as we not only found seats, which had been made by them of earth and stone, but a considerable number of broken jars scattered about, and some entirely whole, in which the Peruvian wine and liquors of that country are preserved. We also found some old daggers, nails and other implements. This place is, in every respect, calculated for refreshment or relief for crews after a long and tedious voyage, as it abounds with wood, and good anchorage, for any number of ships, and sheltered from all winds by Albemarle Isle. The watering-place of the Buccaneers was entirely dried up, and there was only found a small rivulet between two hills running into the sea; the northernmost of the hill forms the south point of Fresh-water bay. Though there is a great plenty of wood, that which is near the shore, is not large enough for any purpose, but to use as fire-wood. In the mountains the trees may be of a larger size, as they grow to the summit of them. I do not think that the watering-place which we saw, is the only one on the island; and I have no doubt, if wells were dug any where beneath the hills, that it would be found in great plenty: they must be made, however, at some distance from the sandy beach, as within a few yards behind them, is a large lagoon of salt water, from three to eight feet in depth, which rises and falls with the tide; and in a few hours a channel might be cut into it. The woods abound with tortoises, doves, and guanas, and the lagoons with teal. The earth produces wild mint, sorrel, and a plant resembling the cloth-tree of Otaheite and the Sandwich Isles, whose leaves are an excellent substitute for the China tea, and was indeed preferred to it by my people as well as myself. There are many other kinds of trees, particularly the moli-tree, mentioned by Mr. Falkner, and the algarrooa, but that which abounds, in a superior degree, is the cotton tree. There is great plenty of every kind of fish that inhabit the tropical latitudes; mullet, devil-fish, and green turtle were in great abundance. But all the luxuries of the sea, yielded to that which the island afforded us in the land tortoise, which in whatever way it was dressed, was considered by all of us as the most delicious food we had ever tasted. The fat of these animals when melted down, was equal to fresh butter; those which weighed from thirty to forty pounds, were the best, and yielded two quarts of fat: some of the largest, when standing on their feet, measured near a yard from the lower part of the neck. As they

advance in age their shell becomes proportionably thin, and I have seen them in such a state, that a pebble would shatter them. I salted several of the middle size, with some of the eggs, which are quite round, and as big as those of a goose, and brought them to England. The most extraordinary animal in this island is the sea guana, which, indeed abounds in all these isles. We did not see the land guana in any of the isles but James's, and it differs from that which I have seen on the coast of Guinea, in having a kind of comb on the back of its neck.' P. 156.

We find little to add to captain Vancouver's account of Cocos Island. The advantages are indeed placed in a more luxuriant point of view; but it appears that numerous fish are prevented from catching at the bait by the sharks, which, round this island, are particularly bold; and the land is infested by flies and rats.

The next groupe of islands, which captain Colnett examined, are nearly opposite the entrance of the gulph of California. He has denominated them, from the viceroy of Mexico, the Rivella Ggeda Islands. Socoro, the only one which he visited, is, he thinks, an excellent place of resort for a scorbutic crew, or for refitting a vessel of war cruizing against the Spaniards, or a whaler. On the south-west of Socoro, there is a convenient bay, but the island itself is volcanic. In this run, the yellow fever, and the scurvy, occurred on board of the *Rattler*; and we shall select our navigator's account of his judicious management in each emergency; for he had no surgeon on board.

' On the first symptoms appearing, the fore-part of the head was immediately shaved, and the temples, and pole, washed with vinegar and water. The whole body, was then immersed in warm water, to give a free course to perspiration; some opening medicine was afterward administered, and every four hours, a dose of ten grains of James's powders. If the patient was thirsty, the drink was weak white wine and water, and a slice of bread to satisfy an inclination to eat. An increasing appetite was gratified by a small quantity of soup, made from the mucilaginous parts of the turtle, with a little vinegar in it. I also gave the sick, sweetmeats and other articles from my private stock, whenever they expressed a distant wish for any, which I could supply them with. By this mode of treatment, the whole crew improved in their health, except the carpenter, who, though a very stout, robust man, was, at one time, in such a state of delirium, and so much reduced, that I gave him over; but he at length recovered.' P. 81.

' We brought plenty of cocoa nuts from Isles Cocos, and there was never wanting a fresh meal of turtle; for they were in such numbers floating on the surface of the water, as to be taken when-

ever they were required. To this food, we may be said to owe the preservation of our healths, and the crew, in general, grew fat upon it.

‘ Other voyagers have alledged, that living on turtle, causes the flux, scurvy and fever; I can first account for such a consequence, by its not being sufficiently boiled, or cooked in unclean utensils; and, secondly, every man who has experienced a long voyage, is well informed, that a sudden change of food, and particularly from an ordinary sea or salt diet, to an entirely fresh one, will produce the flux, sickness of stomach and other complaints. My method, to prevent such effects, was to allow the crew as much vinegar as they could use, and superintend myself the preparation of the seamen’s meal. I used to taste the broth, in order to know if it was properly done, that it contained a sufficient quantity of pearl barley, and was duly seasoned by boiling with it salt beef or pork. I also ordered that the proportion of the salt meats cooked with the turtle, should be previously towed and freshened, and when the crew were tired of soup, I gave them flour to make their turtle-meat into pies, and, at other times, fat pork to chop up with it, and make sausages. But in most of their messes, I took care that so powerful an antiseptic, as sour crout, should not be forgotten.’ P. 82.

Captain Colnett took an opportunity of landing on the isle of Quibos, near the coast of Mexico; but he was in constant apprehension of a visit from the Spaniards, by whose perfidy and cruelty he had before suffered. At Quibos cruisers may conveniently be refitted, as wood and water are in plenty, and of a good quality. Scarcity of provisions, and other causes, at length urged the captain’s return. He stopped a short time at St. Helena; and re-appeared in his native country, after an absence of twenty-two months, during which he had lost only one man, who was killed by an accident.

This voyage is not so interesting, from the variety of adventure or the importance of the countries visited, as those of captain Cook or that of Vancouver. Its utility, however, is not inconsiderable; and we ought not to refuse captain Colnett the merit of being a worthy pupil of our great navigator, able, provident, circumspect, and ingenious. Perhaps this voyage is printed too superbly; and fastidious criticism may remark too great inattention to correctness and elegance of language. But the latter point, being a very common fault, will not detract much from the pleasure of the general reader; and the former circumstance may have been proper to render the work a companion to those voyages to which it is a supplement.

Biographical Memoirs of the French Revolution. By John Adolphus, F. S. A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

ACCOUNTS of the lives of the most distinguished men in the French revolution would, if written with impartiality, afford many useful and important lessons to mankind; but we live too near the scene of action, and have been too much agitated by the dreadful commotions in the neighbouring country, to record at present the events of the late revolutionary period with the qualities requisite in a faithful historian. The work which we are now surveying is a striking instance of the truth of our remark. The writer's plan is to

‘ sketch the lives of the principal actors in the French revolution, and to trace the influence of individuals in producing events which have filled the world with astonishment, and for which historical parallels are sought in vain. It is also no less the object of these Memoirs to shew the nature, spirit, and tendency of those principles which contributed to the success of sanguine innovators, who, under a pretence of ameliorating the condition of mankind, meditated the subversion of social order.’ Vol. i. p. v.

In executing his plan he seems to have been, every instant, apprehensive that we should not be sufficiently disgusted at the atrocities committed by most of the subjects of his memoirs; and, by obtrusive remarks, in extenuating the failings of one side, and exaggerating (if it be possible to exaggerate in such horrid pictures of villany) the crimes of the other side, he weakens rather than increases the melancholy impressions made on every feeling mind during this eventful period.

He is not only deficient in the necessary impartiality of an historian, but also in the knowledge requisite to qualify a writer to enter into the views of the parties which successively arose during the revolution. Occupied with the objects before him, he seems to think that the influence of individuals was very great in exciting a commotion, doubtless most wonderful in its kind; and, like many others, he is led to believe that it was the effect of a conspiracy of some pretended philosophers, visionary atheists, and worthless men of fortune. With this conceit in his head, we are not surprised that he should quote with much approbation the delusions of the abbé Barruel and professor Robison, and refer the effervescence of a great nation to very unimportant agents. This hypothesis is a mere fiction invented by men who are ready to acquiesce in an apparently easy solution of all the difficulties attending a very interesting period, instead of taking the trouble to dive into the recesses of history, and to discover,

in remote periods, the germs of those evils which at last united *en masse* to the subversion of the empire. It must be the task of an historian in the next century to point out the various causes which rendered the restoration of the ancient constitution of France the means of destroying its monarchy. A benevolent sovereign, desirous of restoring the old laws, convokes the states of his realm, which, instead of uniting with him in his views for the promotion of the happiness of the people, destroy the constitution; and the people, who at one time were extravagantly fond of their monarch, now run into the opposite extreme, and hold the very name in abhorrence. Such extraordinary changes are not produced without an adequate cause; and he who looks for it in the meetings of a few self-called *illuminati* in Bavaria, or in a more extended toleration of philosophical discussion, may, in these times, by an appeal to the passions, convert many to his opinion, but must not expect much attention from reflecting minds, or from the patient investigators of historic truth.

Under the article La Fayette, our author's want of impartiality is remarkably shown; for though he continues his account of Dumouriez to his residence in Altona, every circumstance relative to La Fayette, after his capture by the Prussians, is suppressed; and the following reasons for this defalcation are given in a note at the close of this article.

‘ I close the memoirs of la Fayette at this period, because a discussion of the particulars of his captivity and release is not consistent with the principal object of this work. Those who may be inclined to pursue the subject are referred to the discussion of his protest by Peltier (*Late Picture*, vol. ii. p. 188); to the admirable speeches of Burke and Windham in the Parliamentary Debates; and to a pamphlet, intitled “An Essay on the Causes and Vicissitudes of the French Revolution, including a Vindication of General la Fayette’s character.” Vol. i. p. 482.

Was the writer apprehensive that the dungeons of Olmutz would extenuate the guilt of the Luxembourg or the Conciergerie? By us every species of cruelty, whether practised by imperial or republican ministers, shall be holden up to public abhorrence; and we regret that the writer did not perceive that the great object of his work would be best accomplished by showing tyranny and oppression in their proper colours wherever they appeared.

The failure of the writer in this respect deserves more severe reprehension, since he is particular in drawing the attention of his reader to the liberal treatment of a state prisoner under the old government in the Bastille, compared with the cruelty of the republicans. We shall select these extracts, not only as the most interesting parts of the work, but to do

that justice to the Bastille which impartiality requires, and which, from our acquaintance with a person confined in it, we know to be true.

‘ Dumouriez was conveyed to the Bastille at nine o’clock at night; he was received by the major, and underwent a minute search: his money, knife, and shoe-buckles were taken from him. The reason assigned for the latter privation was, that a prisoner had strangled himself by swallowing the tongue of a buckle; yet with all this sagacity they left him his knee-buckles. The search and enumeration of his effects took up an hour and a half. Dumouriez then complained of hunger, and required a fowl might be sent for from the next tavern. “A fowl,” said the major; “do you know that this is Friday?” “You are entrusted with my person only, and not my conscience,” answered the prisoner. “I am ill; for the Bastille itself is a malady: do not, therefore, refuse me a fowl.” He was accordingly indulged.

‘ The place of his confinement was an octagonal chamber, about fifteen feet in every direction, and twenty five in height; the only window, which was twenty-two feet from the floor, and opened in three different parts, was a narrow embrasure, at least fifteen feet thick, guarded with double rows of massy iron bars. All the moveables consisted of an old bed, with serge curtains, very dirty and uncomfortable, a *chaise percée*, a wooden table, a straw-bottomed chair, and a pitcher. A turnkey, or jailor, who was a robust man, with a clownish aspect, lighted a fire, left a candle, and retired. When Dumouriez inquired if he could not have a better chamber, the jailor assured him that it was one of the best in all the tower of liberty, for, by a refinement in barbarity, they had given that name to one of the towers of the Bastille. Struck with this reflection, Dumouriez said, laughing, “It appears to me, that in this charming habitation, they add a biting kind of sauce to their hospitality.” The observation was repeated by the turnkey, and inserted in a register, where all the smart sayings extorted by anguish, vexation, or surprise, from the unfortunate, were carefully recorded.

‘ The next day he was awakened by the noise of keys used in opening two very thick doors, fortified with plates of iron. Bread and wine were brought for his breakfast, and he was apprised that at nine o’clock he must wait on the governor. Dumouriez was conducted before him by a serjeant, and four invalids. The governor, the count de Jumilhac, was an old officer, and a man of pleasure, kind, sensible, and well informed. He told Dumouriez, that the king allowed fifteen livres (13s. 1½d.) a-day for him, and three (2s. 7½d.) for each of his servants, so that if he was not well treated he might prefer his complaint to him. He also said, that, in conformity to the regulations of the Bastille, he would be considered as a close prisoner, until his first examination had taken place;

that no person was allowed to converse with him, or answer questions; and that, in strictness, he ought not to be allowed pen, ink, or paper, or any book whatever, not even a prayer-book. "But," added the count, "I am too much interested in your behalf to conform strictly to this rule. I am too old to visit you in your apartment. I shall, therefore, require you to descend every morning into this hall: carry these two volumes with you, and conceal them." Dumouriez saw the governor every morning, who not only furnished him with books, but recounted the anecdotes of the gay world. He carried his attention so far as to supply him with a small quantity of lemons, sugar, coffee, and foreign wines; he also sent him a dish from his own table when he dined at home.' Vol. i. p. 366.

During his confinement in this apartment, he underwent several examinations.

' Pending these examinations, Dumouriez had quarrelled with his gaoler, who was stout, athletic, insolent, and choleric. This man treated him with great indignity, addressed him contemptuously, (*thou'd* him,) and threatened to strike him. The prisoner sprang towards the chimney, and seizing a firebrand, knocked him down. The quarrel was referred to the major, who seemed inclined to favour the turnkey; but Dumouriez appealed to his friend the governor, who took cognizance of the dispute; and was with difficulty prevented, by the intreaties of the prisoner himself, from turning the man out of his office.' Vol. i. p. 369.

Finding that he was likely to remain a considerable time in prison, Dumouriez, by an ingenious artifice, contrived to procure the favour of a removal to a better apartment.

' His new apartment was twenty-six feet long and eighteen broad, with a good fire-place, a neat bed, and an anti-chamber; but the room was dark, as it had but one window. In a few days he obtained an order for the removal of his servants, who were very happy to join him.

' Dumouriez now fared extremely well; his dinner, which always consisted of five dishes, and his supper, composed of three, besides the dessert, were served up together, and made a magnificent appearance. His valet prepared excellent ragouts; and their situation banishing all restraint, the three prisoners took their meals together. But the charms of such society soon wore off, and Dumouriez began to repent having obtained it. He had philosophy enough to stifle his own regrets at the loss of liberty; but his companions, less occupied, and less able to sustain the privation of enjoyments, frequently brought him to a lively sense of his situation by lamenting theirs. He was obliged to leave his studies to amuse them: he taught them games at cards and chess, and read romances and travels to them one hour in the morning and two at night.

He was, however, attacked with a sciatica, and confined a week to his bed, and then became fully sensible of the value of their company and assistance.

‘ He was furnished with whatever books he required from his own library; and, during his confinement, wrote a tract on war, intitled “Military Principles;” and also a “Treatise on Legions.” Vol. i. p. 371.

The republican treatment of prisoners appears to have varied according to the prevalence of the system of terror.

‘ In one prison they used to meet in the evening in a common-room, and sit at a long table; the ladies amused themselves with works appropriate to their sex; every one brought a light, some of the gentlemen read, some painted, but a profound silence was usually observed. After supper, till nine o’clock, they amused themselves with the recitation of poetry, composed by the prisoners, with songs and music. The increase of numbers, additional severities, and the daily murder of some of their companions, occasionally embittered their meetings; yet they still continued to amuse themselves, in spite of privations, dangers, and terrors. Frequent repetition rendered them almost indifferent even to the loss of their companions. A person who had been fifteen months confined in the Conciergerie, informed Major Tench, that during that time he saw one hundred and sixty-seven persons go out of his room to the guillotine. He described almost all these victims as so conscious of their innocence, and so reconciled to their fate, that nothing but resignation, indifference, and levity prevailed throughout the prison. It was customary to warn on the preceding evening those who were to be tried the next day; and by a regulation made among themselves, the party to be tried gave a supper on that night to the whole room; and if he was spared for the present and remanded back, he was in return treated with a dinner at their joint expence. The dinner entertainments were few indeed; but the suppers extremely frequent.

‘ In another prison where the confinement was closer, they amused themselves at midnight by the light of one single taper, with a mock representation of the revolutionary tribunal: some represented judges, some the jury; they had a public accuser; the culprits were found guilty of course, and guillotined by a contrivance of one of their beds. The public accuser himself was at last deposed, tried, and executed; he rose from the dead, related the horrible punishments which he suffered in the other world, and which awaited the judges and jurors. Those *au secret* (in close confinement) contrived to hold a club by a circuitous communication from cell to cell, finding means, notwithstanding the thickness of the walls, to be heard from one dungeon to the other. The disclosure of news was forbid, but now and then a more humane

gaoler or guard would in a whisper communicate some public event, the knowledge of which might be supposed agreeable to his hearers: this was reported again with caution, in ambiguous terms, such as, I dreamt so and so; and when it was so public that it might be mentioned without suspicion, they celebrated it in poetic compositions, songs, &c. Such were, the re-conquest of Toulon, the successes of the armies in general, and the feast in honour of the supreme being, from which the prisoners formed the most flattering hopes.

‘These enjoyments solely counterbalanced a life embittered with daily increasing cruelty. They were surrounded with spies, who endeavoured by acts of the most brutal insolence to force them to complain; and if they did not succeed, invented circumstances they could not occasion, rather than fail in gratifying their employers. This rendered communication insecure, and added a terrible restraint to those under which they already laboured. The language of their gaolers often led them to dread another massacre like that of September 1792, and harassed them by continual fears; which were reinforced by the excavations made in yards of most of the prisons at the same period. The gaolers pretended they were meant for sels-pools; but the prisoners feared they were designed for their graves.’ Vol. i. p. 195.

Where prisoners could meet and entertain themselves in the manner above described, they were comparatively happy; for, in other places, their treatment was shocking to humanity.

‘The Conciergerie, during the old government, was a prison for the worst malefactors; with whom it was shared, under the revolutionary government, by those who were arrested as suspected, or had been condemned by the dreadful tribunal, and were awaiting the execution of their sentence. Its cells are subterraneous; over them are shops and walks where the gaiety and profusion of all comers mark in strong colours the contrasted woes and penury of the unfortunate prisoners. Four wickets, at small distances from each other, secured the entrance to this horrible prison, each guarded by wretches taken from the dregs of vulgar brutality; disgusting from vice, filth, and inebriety, and speaking a language peculiar to their occupation, in English called *slang*. Between the two first doors the prisoner was introduced to the turnkey, who, attended by some myrmidons, examined his features, gave orders for his reception, and passed him on through the other wickets. The place in which prisoners were at first lodged, was called the *fourcière*, or mouse-trap, a dungeon impervious to the rays of the sun, and exhaling an infectious odour, from the accumulated filth of persons who had previously occupied it. The straw provided for a bed, was rotten with damp and filth, and the rats ate the shoes, the clothes, and even the flesh of the unhappy tenant. In this infernal abode they

were sometimes left for thirty-six or forty-eight hours, without relief, without communication, and without food. They were afterwards transferred to some other chamber, or to a different prison. The distinction of apartments in the Conciergerie was made by the terms *à la pistole*, in the straw, or in the dungeons. The first set were denominated from the monthly price paid for a wretched bed; the others were only distinguished from each other by this, that those in the straw were turned out of their apartments between eight and nine in the morning, and not permitted to re-enter them till about an hour before sun-set, while those in the dungeons were confined all day. The accumulation of prisoners was alike in all; the increasing rigor of the revolutionary government caused arrestations so numerous, that many persons could not find room in the cells, and were obliged to take up their abode in the galleries. The whole prison, from crowd, dirt, want of air, and other inconveniences, was so unwholesome, that the confined fell ill and died in such quantities as to exceed credibility.' Vol. i. p. 190.

'The day was thus divided: one hour at table, for they had but one meal, three hours of recreation, and twenty close confinement.

'This meal, instead of being a pleasure, was merely of use to prolong a wretched and precarious existence. The introduction of any food from without was strictly forbid; a table was established in the prison, at which the confined fed *à la gamelle*, catch as catch can; about a hundred plates were set at a table covered with three dishes; the prisoners, deprived of their knives and forks, were obliged to tear the meat with their fingers, and their whole sustenance for the remainder of the day was so much as they could reserve from this scanty and disgusting meal, a little bread and water. The legislature allowed to each individual but fifty sols a-day for food, which, according to the price of provisions in Paris, afforded a miserable subsistence, and was rendered still worse by the rapacity of the *traiteurs*. In some of the prisons they gave half a bottle of adulterated wine, a dish of French beans stewed in stinking grease or tallow, a salt herring, rotten and worm-eaten; in some a little putrescent meat, and vegetables full of dirt, hair, and worms.' Vol. i. p. 192.

From these quotations our readers may form an idea of our author's manner. It may be observed, that his style is sometimes forced and turgid, and that he occasionally affects the Johnsonian diction, without the proper vigour of sentiment to support it. But, upon the whole, the work is interesting as containing a numerous collection of facts, which may gratify the temporary curiosity of the reader.

Sermons by J. B. Massillon, Bishop of Clermont. Selected and Translated by William Dickson, and dedicated, by permission, to her Grace the Duchess of Buccleugh. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Ogilvy and Son.

THE French have a word in their language particularly applicable to the style of the amiable prelate whose discourses now appear in an English dress. They call it *onction*; and we have not, in our language, any term corresponding with it, unless we may be allowed to substitute *richness* for it. This quality, indeed, is rarely cultivated by our preachers; and those who possess it too frequently degrade it by the lowness of their ideas and the disregard of elegance in their manner. How can a preacher aim at *onction*, at that animated flow of language and sentiment which may pierce the soul, when a written paper is between his eyes and the persons of his auditors, and when, instead of impressing every sentiment on all around by his looks and his action, he is entirely occupied with one idea, that of reading with propriety. Hence the sermons from our pulpits are directed to the head, seldom affecting the heart: they are serious, cold, dispassionate, learned, nervous, discourses; but they scarcely ever rouse the soul by sublime flights of eloquence, or melt it by pathetic strains. They are supposed to have arrived at the utmost point of perfection when they are guides to the judgement; and, in this respect, they may claim the superiority over those of other nations.

Very different, in point of style, are the sermons before us. The admirers of the English mode of preaching will feel themselves as it were in a new world, if they can prevail on themselves to indulge in a species of writing to which they have been little accustomed; and we may add, that, though we highly esteem many discourses in our language, the solidity of a Tillotson or a Barrow, when combined with the *onction* of a Massillon, would form a model for our divines which would render the eloquence of our pulpits more impressive and efficacious than it now is. But we hasten to set before our readers the peculiar excellencies of Massillon; and we cannot do this in a better manner than by presenting to them his character as delineated by one who was fully capable of appreciating his merits. D'Alembert, in his *éloge* on Massillon, prefixed to these discourses, thus portrays the striking features of his eloquence.

‘ He excels in that property of an orator, which can alone supply all the rest; in that eloquence, which goes directly to the soul, which agitated, without convulsing; which alarms, without appalling; which penetrates, without rending the heart. He search-

es out those hidden folds, in which the passions lie enveloped; these secret sophisms, which blind and seduce. To combat and to destroy these sophisms, he has in general only to unfold them: this he does with an unction so affectionate and so tender, that he allures us rather than compels; and even when he shews us the picture of our vices, he interests and delights us the most. His diction, always smooth and elegant, and pure, is every where marked with that noble simplicity, without which, there is neither good taste nor true eloquence; a simplicity, which being united in Maffillon, with the sweetest and most bewitching harmony, borrowed from this latter additional graces; but what compleats the charm of this enchanting style, is our conviction, that so many beauties spring from an exuberant source, and are produced without effort or pain. It sometimes happens, indeed, that a few inaccuracies escape him, either in the expression, in the turn of the phrase, or in the affecting melody of his style; such inaccuracies, however, may be called happy ones, for they completely prevent us from suspecting the least degree of labour in his composition. It was by this happy negligence, that Maffillon gained as many friends as auditors; he knew, that the more an orator is intent upon gaining admiration, the less those who hear him are disposed to grant it; and that this ambition is the rock on which so many preachers have split, who being entrusted, if one may dare thus to express it, with the interests of the deity, wish to mingle with them the insignificant interests of their own vanity. He compared the studied eloquence of learned preachers to those flowers, which grow so luxuriantly amongst the corn, that are lovely to the view, but noxious to the corn.

‘Maffillon reaped another advantage from that heart-affecting eloquence, which he made so happy an use of. As he spoke the language of all conditions, because he spoke to the heart, all descriptions of men flocked to his sermons; even unbelievers were eager to hear him; they often found instruction, when they expected only amusement, and returned sometimes converted, when they thought they were only bestowing or withholding their praise. Maffillon could descend to the language, which alone they would listen to, that of a philosophy, apparently human, but which, finding every avenue to the heart laid open, allowed the orator to approach without effort and assistance; and made him conqueror, even before he had engaged.’ Vol. i. p. x.

We must, indeed, relinquish some of our English prejudices, if we wish to derive pleasure and improvement from these volumes. If the preacher should seem to us to have gone too far in his addresses to the heart, let us recollect where, and to whom, he preached, and who he was. At Paris, before a splendid court, this truly evangelical preacher considered himself as intrusted with a very important commission. In his

fight, all men on the sacred ground were equal: he made no distinctions; he flattered no one; he neither aimed at the praise, nor feared the censure, of any. The conversion of the soul to God was the only object and the prize of his ambition. If we trace him in his bishopric of Clermont, we may perceive, equally displayed, the amiable simplicity of his manners, the goodness of his heart, and his zeal in the cause of religion. He who was admired by the court of France was beloved by the inhabitants of Clermont. His apostolical manners develop themselves in every discourse: the life of the prelate and his writings throw light on each other; and the feeling mind enjoys double pleasure in reflecting that every sentiment which is inspired by the perusal of these discourses was exemplified in the practice of the writer.

We might open the volumes at random and offer extracts without selection, to gratify our readers; but, to lead those who have heard only of the reputation of the preacher into the full blaze of his eloquence, we will present them with a passage which is said to have made a very forcible impression upon the audience. He had been giving reasons for the smallness of the number of persons likely to be saved; and he brings on his grand apostrophe in the following words.

‘ These, my brethren, are truths which should make us tremble; nor are they those vague ones which are told to all men, and which none apply to themselves: perhaps there is not in this assembly, an individual, who may not say of himself, “ I live like the great number; like those of my rank, age, and situation; I am lost, should I die in this path.” Now can any thing be more capable of alarming a soul, in whom some remains of care for his salvation still exist? It is the multitude, nevertheless, who tremble not. There is only a small number of just, which operates apart, its salvation, with fear and trembling: all the rest are tranquil. After having lived with the multitude, they flatter themselves they shall be particularised at death; every one augurs favourably for himself, and chimerically thinks he shall be an exception.

‘ On this account, it is, my brethren, that I confine myself to you, who at present are assembled here; I include not the rest of men; but consider you as alone existing on the earth. The idea, which occupies and frightens me, is this, I figure to myself the present, as your last hour, and the end of the world: that the heavens are going to open above your heads: our Saviour in all his glory, to appear in the midst of this temple; and that you are only assembled here to wait his coming, like trembling criminals, on whom the sentence is to be pronounced, either of life eternal, or of everlasting death: for it is vain to flatter yourselves, that you shall die more innocent than you are at this hour; all those desires of change with which you are amused, will continue to amuse you

till death arrives; the experience of all ages proves it; the only difference you have to expect, will most likely be only a larger balance against you than what you would have to answer for at present: and from what would be your destiny, were you to be judged this moment, you may almost decide upon what will take place at your departure from life. Now I ask you, (and connecting my own lot with yours, I ask it with dread,) were Jesus Christ to appear in this temple, in the midst of this assembly, to judge us, to make the dreadful separation betwixt the goats and sheep, do you believe that the greatest number of us would be placed at his right hand? do you believe that the number would at least be equal? do you believe there would even be found ten upright and faithful servants of the Lord, when formerly five cities could not furnish so many? I ask you. You know not: and I know it not. Thou alone, O my God! knowest who belong to thee.

‘ But if we know not who belong to him, at least we know that sinners do not. Now, who are the just and faithful, assembled here at present? Titles and dignities avail nothing: you are stripped of all these in the presence of your Saviour: who are they? Many sinners, who wish not to be converted; many more who wish, but always put it off; many others, who are only converted in appearance, and again fall back to their former courses: in a word, a great number, who flatter themselves they have no occasion for conversion: this is the party of the reprobate. Ah! my brethren, cut off from this assembly these four classes of sinners, for they will be cut off at the great day: and now appear, ye just: where are ye? O God! where are thy chosen? And what a portion remains to thy share!

‘ My brethren, our ruin is almost certain; yet we think not of it. When even in this terrible separation, which will one day take place, there should be only one sinner in this assembly, on the side of the reprobate; and that a voice from heaven should assure us of it without particularising him: who of us would not tremble, lest he should be the unfortunate and devoted wretch? who of us would not immediately apply to his conscience, to examine if his crimes merited not this punishment? who of us, seized with dread, would not demand of our Saviour, as the apostles formerly did, and say, “ Lord, is it I?” And should a small respite be allowed to our prayers, who of us would not use every effort, by tears, supplications, and sincere repentance, to avert the misfortune? Are we in our senses, my dear hearers? perhaps, among all who listen to me, ten just would not be found; perhaps fewer: what do I know, O my God! I dare not with a fixed eye regard the depths of thy judgments and thy justice. More than one perhaps would not be found amongst us all. And this danger affects you not, my dear hearer? you persuade yourself, that in this great number who shall perish, you will be the happy individual; you, who have less reason perhaps than any other to believe it; you, upon whom alone

the sentence of death should fall, were only one of all who hear me, to suffer? Great God! how little are the terrors of thy law known to the world! in all ages, the just have shuddered with dread; in reflecting on the severity and extent of thy judgments upon the destinies of men: alas! what do they prepare for the children of Adam!

‘But what are we to conclude from these grand truths? That all must despair of salvation? God forbid: the impious alone, to quiet his own feelings in his debaucheries, endeavours to persuade himself, that all men shall perish as well as he.

‘This idea ought not to be the fruit of the present discourse. It is meant to undeceive you with regard to the general error, that any one may do whatever others do; to convince you that in order to merit salvation, you must distinguish yourselves from the rest; in the midst of the world, lead a life to the glory of God, and resemble not the multitude.’ Vol. i. p. 77.

We might here leave the reader to his own sensations; but it is necessary to observe, that, in less lofty flights, the preacher is still himself, and, with equal eye, notices the failings of his own profession and the laity. We will add an extract in which he has given very nearly the true meaning of a passage that has excited much dispute among commentators.

‘The apostle desired, that the Christian women should be covered with a veil in the temple, on account of the angels, that is to say, of the priests, who are continually present there before God, and whose innocence and purity ought to equal that of the heavenly spirits. True it is, that thou thereby warnest us, O my God, what ought, in our temples, to be the holy gravity, and the inviolable collection of thy ministers; that it is for us to bear here, stamped upon our countenance, the holy dread of the mysteries which we offer up, and the lively and intimate sense of thy presence; that it is for us to inspire here the people around us with respect, by the sole appearance of our modesty; that it is for us not to appear around the altar, and employed in the holy ministry, often more wearied, more careless, and more in haste than even the assisting multitude; and not to authorise their irreverences by our own. For, O my God! the desolation of the holy place hath commenced with the sanctuary itself; the respect of the people there hath become weakened only in consequence of being no longer supported by the holy gravity of the worship, and the majesty of the ceremonies; and thy house hath begun to be a house of dissipation and of scandal, only since thy ministers have made of it a house of traffic, of weariness, and of avarice. But our examples, in authorising your profanations, do not excuse them, my brethren.’ Vol. ii. p. 421.

The following just and beautiful sentiments on prayer will

be felt by all who have with sincerity employed themselves in that duty.

‘Prayer is not an exertion of the mind; an arrangement of ideas, a profound knowledge of the mysteries and counsels of God; it is a simple emotion of the heart; it is a lamentation of the soul, deeply affected at the sight of its own wretchedness; it is a keen and inward feeling of our wants and of our weakness, and an humble confidence which it lays before its Lord, in order to obtain relief and deliverance from them. Prayer supposes in the soul which prays neither great lights, uncommon knowledge, nor a mind more cultivated and exalted than that of the rest of men; it supposes only more faith, more contrition, and a warmer desire of deliverance from its temptations and from its wretchedness. Prayer is neither a secret nor a science which we learn from men; nor is it an art, or a private method, upon which it is necessary to consult skilful teachers, in order to be master of its rules and precepts. The methods and the maxims thereupon, pretended to be laid down to us in our days, are either singular ways which are not to be followed, or the vain speculations of an idle mind, or a fanaticism, which may stop at nothing, and which, far from edifying the church, hath merited her censures, and hath furnished, to the impious, matter of derision against her, and to the world, fresh pretexts of contempt for, and disgust at prayer. Prayer is a duty, upon which we are all born instructed: the rules of this divine science are written solely in our hearts; and the spirit of God is the sole master to teach it.’
Vol. ii. p. 91.

The sketch of the progress of sin, in a sermon on the resurrection of Lazarus, affords another display of the rhetorical powers of the preacher; and the simile, between the withdrawing of the divine spirit from the soul and of the sun's light from our hemisphere, is as complete in all its parts as it is beautiful.

‘I confess that every sin is an error which makes us mistake evil for good; it is a false judgment which makes us seek, in the creature, that ease, grandeur, and independence which we can find in God alone: it is a mist which hides order, truth, and righteousness from our eyes, and, in their place, substitutes vain phantoms. Nevertheless, a first falling off from God does not altogether extinguish our lights; nor is it always productive of total darkness. It is true that the spirit of God, source of all light, retires, and no longer dwells within us; but some traces of light are still left in the soul: thus, though the sun be already withdrawn from our hemisphere, yet certain rays of his light still tinge the sky, and form, as it were, an imperfect day; it is only in proportion as he sinks that gloom gains, and the darkness of night at last prevails. In the same manner, in proportion as sin degenerates into habit, the light

of God retires, darkness gains, and the profound night of total blindness at last arrives.

‘ And then all becomes occasion of error to the criminal soul; all changes its aspect to his eyes; the most shameful passions no longer appear but as weaknesses; the most criminal attachments but sympathies brought with us into the world and inherent to our hearts; the excesses of the table but innocent pleasures of society; revenge but a just sense of injury; licentious and impious conversations but lively and agreeable fallies; the blackest defamation but a customary language of which none but weak and timid minds can make a scruple; the laws of the church but old-fashioned customs; the severity of God’s judgments but absurd declamations which equally disgrace his goodness and mercy; death in sin, inevitable consequence of a criminal life, mere predictions, in which there is more of zeal than of truth, and refuted by the confidence which a return to God, previous to that last moment, promises to us; lastly, heaven, the earth, hell, all creatures, religion, crimes, virtues, good and evil, things present and to come, all change their aspect to the eyes of a soul who lives in habitual guilt; all shew themselves under false appearances; his whole life is no longer but a delusion and a continued error. Alas! could you tear away the fatal veil which covers your eyes, like those of Lazarus, and behold yourself, like him, buried in darkness; all covered with putrefaction, and spreading around infection and a smell of death! But now, says our Saviour, all these things are hid from thine eyes; you see in yourself only the embellishments and the pompous externals of the fatal tomb in which you drag on in sin; your rank, your birth, your talents, your dignities, your titles; that is to say, the trophies and the ornaments which the vanity of men has there raised up; but, remove the stone which covers that place of horror; look within, judge not of yourself from these pompous outsides, which serve only to embellish your carcase; see what, in the eyes of God, you are; and, if the corruption and the profound blindness of your soul touch you not, let its slavery at least rouse and recall you to yourself.’ Vol. iii. p. 301.

We could with pleasure continue our extracts; but our limits admonish us to quit the subject. The translator has, we think, performed a very acceptable service to the public: we can excuse some Scoticism and some Gallicisms, as the selection which he has made is good. To those who can discriminate what may be considered as belonging to the Romish church, a more valuable present can scarcely be offered than these truly apostolical discourses of a truly catholic bishop,

Poems, sacred and moral. By Thomas Gisborne, M. A. 8va.
4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

MR. Gisborne has honourably distinguished himself by the moral and religious tendency of his writings both in prose and in verse. His *Walks in a Forest* * discovered poetical talents of no mean degree. Descriptions of natural beauties, if tolerably executed, always please; and the devotional feelings which the author wished to excite, arose immediately from his subject. In the present volume, Mr. Gisborne has attempted the more difficult task of lyric composition.

The *Dying Indian* is not an ode equal to its subject: the language has not the savage fierceness and strength by which it should be characterised. We remembered the *Death Song of Regner Lodbrog*, and felt the imbecility of this. The religious point of the poem is expressed in the concluding stanza:

‘He spoke, he laugh’d, he died.
“Hail, my unequall’d Son,” said Pride,
“Not so;” a voice from Heaven replied.
“Is He the truly brave,
Victor of pain, but thine and Passion’s slave?
His holy head see Stephen bow:
See meekness calm his angel brow.
Around see Malice scowl, see Vengeance glare;
See Rage the murderous stones prepare;
And Saul the garments keep.
Hark!—‘Lord, their sin forgive!
My spirit, Lord, receive!—’
He spake, and fell asleep.” P. 32.

In this there seems to be a want of accuracy. The savage is not the less brave because he is the slave of pride and passion. Error has had its martyrs as well as truth: in both cases the fortitude is the same.

The *Reformation* is a better poem.

‘Even now behold the signs display’d
Of roused alarm, of vengeful ire!
Volumes of smoke the pile o’ershade;
Each roaring turret pours its fire.
For lo, the keen-eyed Guards descry
In human guise an Angel Foe draw nigh!
Still as more fierce the vollied lightning glows,
His form dilates, his stature grows.
Nor spear nor sword he deigns to wield;
Backward he flings his radiant shield;

* See Crit. Rev. New. Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 42.

Beside yon bulwark takes his stand;
 The buttress grasps with giant hand;
 Shakes, Sampson-like, the nodding towers amain;
 And opes the mighty rent, that ne'er shall close again.

"So wait, Abhorred Pile, thy fall—"

Ere yet anew he seeks the skies,

"So nurse beneath thy ruin'd wall

Thy serpent brood," the Victor cries.

So wait thy fall, so nurse thy brood

O'ergorged and drunk with Saints' and Martyrs' blood;

Till, closed the number'd years by Heaven assign'd

The scorers of its law to blind,

And prove by more than Pagan rage

The votaries of the sacred page;

He, Lord of Angels and of Men,

In Thee still crucified again,

Comes, robed in clouds, to vindicate His name,

And sink thy mouldering wrecks in everduring flame.

"Servants of God! far hence repair;

Come forth, come forth, ere yet too late:

Who join her sins, her fate must share;

Fly, fly her sins, nor share her fate!"

' Germania, starting at the sound,

And Cimbrian cliffs the warning notes rebound.

Swift o'er the Codan wave the echo flies;

And Scania to the call replies.

Heard ye Helvetia's rising gales?

Alps cry to Alps, and vales to vales.

Lo, Albion, on her sea-beat plain,

Claps her glad hands, and swells the strain.

O'er Caledonian hills the murmur breaks;

And snow-clad Thule hears, and wonders as she wakes.

' Where'er the warning notes are spread,

The carved saints, the graven stones,

And shaggy cloaks of Hermits dead,

And fabled martyrs crumbling bones,

And venal passports to the sky

Flung to the moles and bats dishonour'd lie,

There lie the tools of sanctimonious guile,

By Priestcraft form'd his spells to pile

And dupe the crowd that gazed from far.

And hark, the cloister-doors unbar!

The imprisoned victims hurry forth:

Lo pale-eyed beauty, letter'd worth,

To Heaven their raptures lift in grateful strife;

And drink anew the gales of liberty and life.' P. 41.

The design of the poem entitled *Consolation* is to compare Christianity with the systems of Pyrrho, of Epicurus, and of Zeno. The comfortless uncertainty of Pyrrhonism is exposed with fidelity; but the Epicurean and Stoical systems are not represented with candour; the conduct of the former sect is thus described.

‘ Instant in visionary scene

Pleasure’s bright mansions met my view :

From joy to joy, no pause between,

The maddening crowd unsated flew.

If chance, his gray head bending low,

Some beggar urged his tale of woe ;

Swifter they past, and with averted eye,

Smote the loud harp, and drown’d the unwelcome cry.

‘ The feast was spread ; the spicy wine

With gleaming blush the silver dyed :

Here Wit with flowers his darts would twine ;

His ruder shafts there Humour plied ;

From rank to rank he bade them roam :

Convulsive laughter shook the dome.

Here lyre and voice in rapturous conflict strove :

There the brisk dance its changeful mazes wove.

‘ Yet soon repeated pleasure cloy’d :

The ear scarce heard the jocund strain :

The dance was toil no more enjoy’d :

The spicy goblet breathed in vain

Its odours : on the palled tongue

Lingering the tasteless morsel hung :

The heartless smile betray’d its mimic air ;

And languor sicken’d in the vacant stare.

‘ Foul passions oft would strip the veil ;

Their sway the alter’d look proclaim’d :

Here, hollow cheeks with envy pale ;

There, eyes with hate and rage inflamed.

With savage shout and uproar wild

Discord the banquet oft embroil’d.

Guest frown’d on guest, with hostile arms opposed :

And wounds and groans the frantic orgies closed.

‘ Oft would some wretch with tiger’s glare

In murderous ambush take his stand :

The setting sun discern’d the snare ;

The moon beheld his blood-stain’d hand.

Then farewell joy in song or feast !

Ideal horrors rack his breast :

The lyre’s gay voice ideal shrieks control ;

And fancied poisons mantle in the bowl.

'Triumphant o'er the sensual race,
 Disease ere long her woes combined;
 The bloated form, the ghastly face,
 The palsied limb, the enervate mind.
 Each on his couch of anguish laid,
 On Death they call'd for instant aid:
 Then shriek'd in terror, when advancing near
 The phantom scowl'd, and shook his lifted spear.' p. 74.

The Stoic is represented as beholding happiness without pleasure, and misery without emotion. He passes unmoved over a field of battle, and walks upon the dead. His father beseeches him to ransom him from captivity; and the son refuses with brutal contempt. Is this the system of Epictetus, or that of Antoninus? With the same candour, with the same justice, does the infidel attribute monastic absurdities, and the cruelties of the inquisition, to the spirit of Christianity.

The Elegy on Mr. Mason we mentioned with approbation on its separate appearance*.

Among the smaller poems that of Conscience is distinguished by its correct and strong versification. The stanzas, entitled Fortitude; are intended to show the superiority of Christian endurance to Roman contempt of death; and the instances chosen for the illustration of this point are Cato of Utica, and Louis XVI. The piece concludes with this stanza.

'Lo here the fortitude compar'd
 That truth and error give!
 'Twas but to die the Roman dared;
 The Christian dares to live.' p. 8.

The comparison is injudicious; each acted rightly upon his own system; and the Roman must not be tried by the *ex post facto* law of Christianity. Upon this principle any man who submits to public execution is a greater character than Cato of Utica. It is astonishing in what an absurd and even blasphemous manner the same kind of praise has been applied to Charles I. We remember one poem upon him which thus terminates:

'Here Charles the First and Christ the Second lies!'

The stanzas to a Church Bell have less merit than any other piece in the volume. The Birth-Day Eve is a pleasing poem: we extract some of its latter stanzas:

"King of Kings, Lord of Lords, God of heaven and earth,
 Supreme, as in wisdom, in might and in love!
 Thy sheitering hand overshadow'd my birth,
 And hung o'er my childhood a shield from above.

* See our XXIIIrd Vol. New Arr. p. 352.

" When borne on the treacherous current of youth,
 Thy love steer'd my bark, and made tranquil the stream;
 Unfolded benignant the lamp of thy truth,
 And bade me, tho' trembling, rejoice in the beam.

" To the bright shore of Manhood when eager I flew,
 And with novelty charm'd the gay landscape survey'd;
 To a lone valley pointing thy love bade me view
 How soft was the verdure, how peaceful the shade;

" Bade my feet from its confines aspire not to stray,
 Bade me trace its pure brook, nor the streamlet disdain;
 Bade me learn (may I learn!) from the emblem my way
 In silence to hold, yet to hold not in vain.

" O Father! for now from her orbit the year,
 Ere yon fires set again, shall her speed have withdrawn;
 And another with pinions unfurl'd her career
 Stands prepared to begin at the peep of the dawn;

" O frown not, her tribute while gratitude pays,
 And hail thee with rapture the Lord of her doom;
 If Hope, still confiding, her accent should raise,
 And plead with Thee, Father, for mercy to come!

" Be the year now at hand as the day that is past!—
 As the sun rose this morn in calm lustre array'd,
 So rise the new year by no grief overcast,
 No turbulent storm of misfortune dismay'd!

" On the splendor of noon no obscurity stole,
 Save the dim flitting cloud, that but temper'd the ray:
 So if Sorrow must darken the months as they roll,
 O mild be her shadows, and passing her sway!

" As the moonlight now slumbers on wood, hill, and plain,
 And in silence the winds and the waters repose;
 So may Peace shed her beams on the year in its wane,
 So bright be its evening, so tranquil its close!" P. 15.

This volume, on the whole, is highly creditable to the abilities, and, what he himself will receive and we consider as higher praise, to the intentions of the author.

Observations on the Claims of the Moderns, to some Discoveries in Chymistry and Physiology. By G. D. Yeats, M. B. of Hertford College, Oxford, Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, and Physician at Bedford. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1798.

IN our review of Dr. Beddoes' republication of Mayow's opinions*, we did ample justice to the character and memory of

* See the 1st Vol. of our New Arrangement, p. 45.

an author, whose sagacity and judgment enabled him to penetrate the veil, which before his time had covered nature in some of her most important processes. Mr. Yeats, little contented with commendations so warm as those which we bestowed on that physician, raises him into an oracle of truth, and detracts from the claims of modern discoverers, because he had preceded them in some of their paths, and hinted at what they have since explained. To substantiate his claim to this praise, much ought to have been added to his works; and, in particular, it should have been shown, that he knew heat to be a distinct substance, capable of combination with, and separation from, other bodies. This principle, of which the influence is so extensively diffused over modern chemistry, was unknown to Dr. Mayow, who adhered to the mechanical idea, that heat consisted in motion. Indeed, had Mr. Yeats consulted the writers of the last century with as much zeal for destroying the credit of his author as he has shown in unreasonably exalting it, he might have brought him very low. Drebbel's 'Spirit,' and various passages in the works of Boyle, show, that the whole bulk of atmospheric air was not supposed to be equally salutary, and that the salutary portion was thought to be contained in nitre. Bacon speaks of nitre as containing air, and air peculiarly fit for supporting flame: he says that the air comes from the nitre, and flame from the inflammable materials in gunpowder: that the active and igneous particles (*igneo-aëriæ*) come from the nitre, was therefore not less an error at the time when he wrote than at present. It is also remarkable, that Mr. Yeats should seemingly attribute the discovery of the composition of nitre to Mayow, when it had been so often described, particularly by Willis. Mayow, indeed, attributed the acid of nitre to the air, and seemed to think that some acid or nitrous principle floated in the air; but he was so little acquainted with the modern doctrine of the composition of acids, that, after endeavouring to explain why the air should not, on this account, be corrosive, he was obliged to rest on the idea, that the air contributed some unknown component part. That nitre sometimes existed, if not formally, at least potentially, in the air, occasioning its coldness, was a doctrine long anterior to his age.

Mayow's doctrine of acids, so greatly extolled, is one of the worst specimens of the mechanical reasoning in chemistry. He distinguishes between the aërial part, and the earthy and acid parts, explaining the acidity by the intestine motion of the fire-air particles, reducing the more obtuse particles of fixed salt to the sharpness of swords or needles. He undoubtedly discovered gasses of different qualities; but, from the uncertain nature of some of the substances employed, we cannot always, even at

present, ascertain the species: to him they must have been wholly unknown. In these experiments, however, his ingenuity, industry, and address, deserve much commendation.

Mr. Yeats, in the introduction to the chapter on Respiration, has given a short history of the opinions on this subject, and has particularly remarked the frequent use of the word *spirit* in contradistinction to *air*. Something might be said on this point: the little consistency of old authors in their use of this word might be shown; and it might be affirmed, that it has little relation to the present subject. We only mention this part, however, to remark that in early ages some surprisingly accurate ideas of nature, and of the causes of various phenomena, were entertained, scattered traces of which we still perceive in the writings of the Platonists, and in the opinions preserved by tradition as those of Pythagoras. They probably once existed in a more regular form, and may have been a part of that system which prevailed very early in the east, and of which we have a beautiful specimen in the Mosaic narrative of the creation. When we find, from later discoveries, the accuracy of these accounts, we are in doubt whether to attribute them to observation or to inspiration. Yet, while we admire these broken remains, we ought not to blame the philosophers who departed from them, or to think that those were destitute of merit, who, from different views, returned to the same path. In several respects they contradicted what might be considered as the plain evidence of the senses; and those whose earliest philosophical acquisitions taught them a very different lesson, must possess great strength of mind, and no inconsiderable acuteness, to escape from their habitual trammels. While Mr. Yeats points out in Ovid or Hippocrates these imperfect traces of truth, he would with difficulty have admitted a system formed on their tenets before the æra of Priestley and Lavoisier; and yet he denies the merit of modern discoverers, because they could not see facts under the guise of suspicions, and because they have obtained some credit by departing from established systems, and investigating the operations of nature with the clue of judicious experiment.

Mayow's doctrine of respiration is crude and jejune, interspersed only with a few brilliant remarks. The florid colour of arterial blood is attributed to the motion excited by the nitro-aërial particles, or their union with the salino-sulphureous; and the heat is supposed to be produced by this fermentation. Such an imperfect view of fermentation certainly disgusted the chemically accurate Boerhaave; and, far distant as this appears from the modern doctrine of respiration and animal heat, it is still farther when we remark, that Mayow supposed the whole of the atmospheric air to be absorbed, and

the nitro-aërial to be separated in the blood-vessels. The only improvement of Mayow is the demonstration, that respiration does not break down the crasis of the blood, and that it contributes to heat rather than cool it. The latter is the consequence of his system of fermentation, and only *accidentally* true.

The effects of the fire-air particles in vegetation and in muscular motion are of a similar kind, supposed to excite heat and motion by their effervescence. The conspiring action of the decussating transverse intercostals was understood by Dr. Mayow; and he has described it with the same clearness and accuracy which appear in Dr. Monro's account. With regard to the discovery neither of the authors should dispute: those who once raised the ribs in the skeleton must have made it.

Mayow has certainly explained the use of the spleen as some late authors have done; but, till the system be proved, the merit must remain ambiguous. Little can be said of his explanation of some diseases from his doctrines. Modern discoverers cannot have drawn from *him*, as, in general, they greatly differ.

We have thus followed Mr. Yeats at a greater length than we intended, and than the merit of his work deserved; but we felt some indignation at an attempt to deprive the moderns of those laurels which are their greatest ornament and boast; an attempt weak and unsupported. Extraordinary prolixity, and arguments vague and indecisive, render this work uninteresting in a philosophical view; and whatever the merits of Mayow may have been, they will not be much longer remembered in consequence of this attempt.

Another object of Mr. Yeats is to show, that the lacteals and lymphatics were known long before the time of their supposed discovery. On this subject we shall only remark, that no author spoke of them as if they had *never been seen*. The discoverers only claimed the merit of having shown them to be a distinct system of vessels, designed chiefly or exclusively for absorption, and terminating in the thoracic duct; and of having pointed them out in every part of the human body, and in animals of other classes.

The language of this work is not less exceptionable than its substance. No discoverer has more pompously displayed his own merits than the author, who thinks that he has discovered the vanity of the pretensions of his predecessors. The affectation of the plural pronoun, which reviewers use by prescription, ('for they are many') is reprehensible in an individual; and from the few grains of wheat hidden in bushels of 'chaff,' the perusal of this work becomes an unpleasing and irksome task.

Travels through the States of North America, and the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, during the Years 1795, 1796, and 1797. By Isaac Weld, Junior. 4to. 1l. 10s. Boards. Stockdale. 1799.

THE political agitations of Europe, for some years past, have occasioned every account of North-America to be perused with a curiosity much stronger than that which had previously been excited by the vast extent of the new continent, the various manners of its motley inhabitants, or even by its colonial connexion with the dominions of Great-Britain. That the public are indebted to the impulse we have noticed, for the present publication, appears from Mr. Weld's preface, in which the object and the extent of his travels are thus described :

‘ At a period when war was spreading desolation over the fairest parts of Europe, when anarchy seemed to be extending its frightful progress from nation to nation, and when the storms that were gathering over his native country* in particular, rendered it impossible to say how soon any one of its inhabitants might be forced to seek for refuge in a foreign land ; the author of the following pages was induced to cross the Atlantic, for the purpose of examining with his own eyes into the truth of the various accounts which had been given of the flourishing and happy condition of the United States of America, and of ascertaining whether, in case of future emergency, any part of those territories might be looked forward to, as an eligible and agreeable place of abode. Arrived in America, he travelled pretty generally through the states of Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, New Jersey, and New York ; he afterwards passed into the Canadas, desirous of obtaining equal information as to the state of those provinces, and of determining from his own immediate observations, how far the present condition of the inhabitants of the British dominions in America might be inferior, or otherwise, to that of the people of the States, who had now indeed thrown off the yoke, but were formerly common members of the same extensive empire.

‘ When abroad, he had not the most distant intention of publishing his travels ; but finding on his return home, that much of the matter contained in the following letters was quite new to his friends, and being induced to think that it might prove equally new, and not wholly unacceptable to the public, he came to the resolution of committing them to print : accordingly the present volume is now offered to the world, in an humble hope, that if not entertaining to all readers, it will at least be so to some, as well as useful to future travellers.

‘ If it shall appear to any one, that he has spoken with too

much asperity of American men and American manners, the author begs that such language may not be ascribed to hasty prejudice, and a blind partiality for every thing that is European. He crossed the Atlantic strongly prepossessed in favour of the people and the country, which he was about to visit; and if he returned with sentiments of a different tendency, they resulted solely from a cool and dispassionate observation of what chance presented to his view when abroad.' p. iii.

Our readers will be gratified by the author's account of his approach to Philadelphia :

' The shores of the bay and of the river Delaware, for a very considerable distance upwards, are low; and they are covered, like the coast, with one vast forest, excepting merely in a few places, where extensive marshes intervene. Nothing, however, could be more pleasing than the views with which we were entertained as we sailed up to Philadelphia. The trees had not yet quite lost their foliage, and the rich red and yellow tints which autumn had suffused over the leaves of the oaks and poplars appeared beautifully blended with the sombre green of the lofty pines; whilst the river winding slowly and smoothly along under the banks, reflected in its glassy surface the varied colours of the objects on shore, as well as the images of multitudes of vessels of various sizes, which, as far as the eye could reach, were seen gliding silently along with the tide. As you approach towards Philadelphia, the banks of the river become more elevated; and on the left hand side, where they are much cleared, they are interspersed with numberless neat farm-houses, with villages and towns; and are in some parts cultivated down to the very edge of the water. The New Jersey shore, on the right hand side, remains thickly wooded, even as far as the city.

' Vessels very commonly ascend to Philadelphia, when the wind is favourable, in twenty-four hours; but unfortunately, as our ship entered the river, the wind died away, and she had to depend solely upon the tide, which flows at the rate of about three miles only in the hour. Finding that the passage up to the city was likely therefore to become tedious, I would fain have gone on shore far below it; but this the captain would not permit me to do. By the laws of Pennsylvania, enacted in consequence of the dreadful pestilence which raged in the capital in the year 1793, the master of any vessel bound for that port is made subject to a very heavy fine, if he suffers any person from on board her, whether mariner or passenger, to go on shore in any part of the state, before his vessel is examined by the health officer; and any person that goes on shore contrary to the will of the master of the vessel, is liable to be imprisoned for a considerable length of time. In case the existence of this law should not be known on board a vessel bound for a port in Pennsylvania, it is the business of the pilot to furnish the master and the passengers on board with copies of it, with which he always comes pro-

vided. The health officer, who is a regular bred physician, resides at Mifflin Fort, four miles below the city, where there is a small garrison kept. A boat is always sent on shore for him from the ship. After having been tossed about on the ocean for nine weeks nearly, nothing could be more tantalizing than to be kept thus close to the shore without being permitted to land.

Philadelphia, as you approach by the river, is not seen farther off than three miles, a point of land covered with trees concealing it from the view. On weathering this point it suddenly opens upon you, and at that distance it looks extremely well; but on a nearer approach, the city makes a poor appearance, as nothing is visible from the water but confused heaps of wooden storehouses, crowded upon each other, the chief of which are built upon platforms of artificial ground, and wharfs which project a considerable way into the river. The wharfs are of a rectangular form, and built of wood; they jut out in every direction, and are well adapted for the accommodation of shipping, the largest merchant vessels being able to lie close alongside them. Behind these wharfs, and parallel to the river, runs Water-street. This is the first street which you usually enter after landing, and it does not serve to give a stranger a very favourable opinion either of the neatness or commodiousness of the public ways of Philadelphia. It is no more than thirty feet wide; and immediately behind the houses, which stand on the side farthest from the water, a high bank, supposed to be the old bank of the river, rises, which renders the air very confined. Added to this, such stench at times prevail in it, owing in part to the quantity of filth and dirt that is suffered to remain on the pavement, and in part to what is deposited in waste houses, of which there are several in the street, that it is really dreadful to pass through it. It was here that the malignant yellow fever broke out in the year 1793, which made such terrible ravages; and in the summer season, in general, the street is found extremely unhealthy. That the inhabitants, after suffering so much from the sickness that originated in it, should remain thus inattentive to the cleanliness of Water-street is truly surprising; more especially so, when it is considered, that the streets in the other parts of the town are as much distinguished for the neatness that prevails throughout them, as this one is for its dirty condition.' P. 2.

Whether that horrible scourge the yellow fever had a foreign or a domestic origin, there can be no doubt that its ravages were extended by this neglect of cleanliness; and the instance betrays a most stupid infatuation on the part of the Americans, and is highly discreditable to the police of Philadelphia. Mr. Weld proceeds to notice the public buildings of the city, which he represents as discovering little taste in architecture. The common gaol, however, merits particular attention in other respects—for the propriety of its regulations,

and the illustration which they give of the criminal laws of Pennsylvania.

' The gaol is a spacious building of common stone, one hundred feet in front. It is fitted up with solitary cells, on the new plan, and the apartments are all arched, to prevent the communication of fire. Behind the building are extensive yards, which are secured by lofty walls. This gaol is better regulated, perhaps, than any other on the face of the globe. By the new penal laws of Pennsylvania, lately enacted, no crime is punishable with death, excepting murder of the first degree, by which is meant, murder that is perpetrated by wilful premeditated intention, or in attempts to commit rape, robbery, or the like. Every other offence, according to its enormity, is punished by solitary imprisonment of a determined duration. Objections may be made to this mode of punishment, as not being sufficiently severe on the individual to atone for an atrocious crime; nor capable, because not inflicted in public, of deterring evil-minded persons in the community from the commission of offences which incur the rigour of the law; but on a close examination, it will be found to be very severe; and as far as an opinion can be formed from the trial that has been hitherto made by the state of Pennsylvania, it seems better calculated to restrain the excesses of the people than any other. If any public punishment could strike terror into the lawless part of the multitude, it is as likely that the infliction of death would do it as any whatsoever; but death is divested of many of his terrors after being often presented to our view; so that we find in countries, for instance in England, where it occurs often as punishment, the salutary effects that might be expected from it are in a great measure lost. The unfortunate wretch, who is doomed to forfeit his life in expiation of the crimes he has committed, in numberless instances, looks forward with apparent unconcern to the moment in which he is to be launched into eternity; his companions around him only condole with him, because his career of iniquity has so suddenly been impeded by the course of justice: or, if he is not too much hardened in the paths of vice, but falls a prey to remorse, and sees all the horrors of his impending fate, they endeavour to rally his broken spirits by the consoling remembrance, that the pangs he has to endure are but the pangs of a moment, which they illustrate by the speedy exit of one whose death he was perhaps himself witness to but a few weeks before. A month does not pass over in England without repeated executions; and there is scarcely a vagabond to be met with in the country, who has not seen a fellow creature suspended from the gallows. We all know what little good effect such spectacles produce. But immured in darkness and solitude, the prisoner suffers pangs worse than death a hundred times in the day: he is left to his own bitter reflections; there is no one thing to divert his attention, and he endeavours in vain to escape from

the horrors which continually haunt his imagination. In such a situation the most hardened offender is soon reduced to a state of repentance.

‘ But punishment by imprisonment, according to the laws of Pennsylvania, is imposed, not only as an expiation of past offences, and an example to the guilty part of society, but for another purpose, regarded by few penal codes in the world, the reform of the criminal. The regulations of the gaol are calculated to promote this effect as soon as possible, so that the building, indeed, deserves the name of a penitentiary house more than that of a gaol. As soon as a criminal is committed to the prison he is made to wash; his hair is shorn, and if not decently clothed, he is furnished with clean apparel; then he is thrown into a solitary cell, about nine feet long and four wide, where he remains debarred from the sight of every living being excepting his gaoler, whose duty it is to attend to the bare necessities of his nature, but who is forbidden, on any account, to speak to him without there is absolute occasion. If a prisoner is at all refractory, or if the offence for which he is imprisoned is of a very atrocious nature, he is then confined in a cell secluded even from the light of heaven. This is the worst that can be inflicted upon him.

‘ The gaol is inspected twice every week by twelve persons appointed for that purpose, who are chosen annually from amongst the citizens of Philadelphia. Nor is it a difficult matter to procure these men, who readily and voluntarily take it upon them to go through the troublesome functions of the office without any fee or emolument whatever. They divide themselves into committees; each of these takes it in turn, for a stated period, to visit every part of the prison; and a report is made to the inspectors at large, who meet together at times regularly appointed. From the report of the committee an opinion is formed by the inspectors, who, with the consent of the judges, regulate the treatment of each individual prisoner during his confinement. This is varied according to his crime, and according to his subsequent repentance. Solitary confinement in a dark cell is looked upon as the severest usage; next, solitary confinement in a cell with the admission of light; next, confinement in a cell where the prisoner is allowed to do some sort of work; lastly, labour in company with others. The prisoners are obliged to bathe twice every week, proper conveniences for that purpose being provided within the walls of the prison, and also to change their linen, with which they are regularly provided. Those in solitary confinement are kept upon bread and water; but those who labour are allowed broth, porridge, puddings, and the like: meat is dispensed only in small quantities, twice in the week. Their drink is water; on no pretence is any other beverage suffered to be brought into the prison. This diet is found, by experience, to afford the prisoners strength sufficient to perform the labour that is imposed upon them; whereas a more generous one would only serve to ren-

der their minds less humble and submissive. Those who labour, are employed in the particular trade to which they have been accustomed, provided it can be carried on in the prison; if not acquainted with any, something is soon found that they can do. One room is set apart for shoemakers, another for taylor's, a third for carpenters, and so on; and in the yards are stone-cutters, smiths, nailers, &c. &c.

‘ Excepting the cells, which are at a remote part of the building, the prison has the appearance of a large manufactory. Good order and decency prevail throughout, and the eye of a spectator is never assailed by the sight of such ghastly and squalid figures as are continually to be met with in our prisons; so far, also, is a visitor from being insulted, that he is scarcely noticed as he passes through the different wards. The prisoners are forbidden to speak to each other without there is necessity; they are also forbidden to laugh, or to sing, or to make the smallest disturbance. An overseer attends continually to see that every one performs his work diligently; and in case of the smallest resistance to any of the regulations, the offender is immediately cast into a solitary cell, to subsist on bread and water till he returns to a proper sense of his behaviour; but the dread all those have of this treatment, who have once experienced it, is such, that it is seldom found necessary to repeat it. The women are kept totally apart from the men, and are employed in a manner suitable to their sex. The labourers all eat together in one large apartment; and regularly, every Sunday, there is divine service, at which all attend. It is the duty of the chaplain to converse at times with the prisoners, and endeavour to reform their minds and principles. The inspectors, when they visit the prison, also do the same; so that when a prisoner is liberated, he goes out, as it were, a new man; he has been habituated to employment, and has received good instructions. The greatest care is also taken to find him employment the moment he quits the place of his confinement. According to the regulations, no person is allowed to visit the prison without permission of the inspectors. The greatest care is also taken to preserve the health of the prisoners, and for those who are sick there are proper apartments and good advice provided. The longest period of confinement is for a rape, which is not to be less than ten years, but not to exceed twenty-one. For high treason, the length of confinement is not to be less than six nor more than twelve years. There are prisons in every county throughout Pennsylvania, but none as yet are established on the same plan as that which has been described. Criminals are frequently sent from other parts of the state to receive punishment in the prison of Philadelphia.

‘ So well is this gaol conducted, that instead of being an expense, it now annually produces a considerable revenue to the state.’ P. 7.

Praise cannot be too liberally bestowed on the Pennsylvania-

ans for this great and successful effort towards attaining the true ends of criminal justice. We fear that the interior of most of the European prisons would exhibit a shocking contrast to that of Philadelphia. But we hope that our own country will soon cease to deserve a reproach grossly inconsistent with its civilisation, opulence, and public spirit. In this department of British police many radical reforms are requisite; and we augur much good from the adoption of the late Mr. Howard's plan of solitary confinement in several of our new prisons.

A pleasing description of Mount Vernon, the seat of the celebrated Washington, is given by our traveller, with some personal particulars relative to that illustrious champion of the liberty of the new world. In this part of the work, however, there is little that is not already known to the European reader; and we therefore extract a few passages illustrative of Trans-Atlantic manners and habits. The accommodations of travellers in Pennsylvania, according to this writer, are not very good.

‘ The taverns throughout this part of the country are kept by farmers, and they are all very indifferent. If the traveller can procure a few eggs with a little bacon he ought to rest satisfied; it is twenty to one that a bit of fresh meat is to be had, or any salted meat except pork. Vegetables seem also to be very scarce, and when you do get any, they generally consist of turnips, or turnip tops boiled by way of greens. The bread is heavy and sour, though they have as fine flour as any in the world; this is owing to their method of making it; they raise it with what they call *sots*; hops and water boiled together. No dependance is to be placed upon getting a man at these taverns to rub down your horse, or even to give him his food, frequently therefore you will have to do every thing of the kind for yourself if you do not travel with a servant; and indeed, even where men are kept for the purpose of attending to travellers, which at some of the taverns is the case, they are so sullen and disobliging that you feel inclined to do every thing with your own hands rather than be indebted to them for their assistance: they always appear doubtful whether they should do any thing for you or not, and to be reasoning within themselves, whether it is not too great a departure from the rules of equality to take the horse of another man, and whether it would not be a pleasing sight to see a gentleman strip off his coat, and go to work for himself; nor will money make them alter their conduct; civility, as I before said, is not to be purchased at any expence in America; nevertheless the people will pocket your money with the utmost readiness, though without thanking you for it. Of all beings on the earth, Americans are the most interested and covetous.

‘ It is scarcely possible to go one mile on this road without meeting numbers of waggons passing and repassing between the

back parts of the state and Philadelphia. These waggons are commonly drawn by four or five horses, four of which are yoked in pairs. The waggons are heavy, the horses small, and the driver unmerciful; the consequence of which is, that in every team, nearly, there is a horse either lame or blind. The Pennsylvanians are notorious for the bad care which they take of their horses. Excepting the night be tempestuous, the waggoners never put their horses under shelter, and then it is only under a shed; each tavern is usually provided with a large one for the purpose. Market or High-street, in Philadelphia, the street by which these people come into the town, is always crowded with waggons and horses, that are left standing there all night. This is to save money; the expence of putting them into a stable would be too great in the opinion of these people. Food for the horses is always carried in the waggon, and the moment they stop they are unyoked, and fed whilst they are warm. By this treatment half the poor animals are foundered. The horses are fed out of a large trough carried for the purpose, and fixed on the pole of the waggon by means of iron pins.' P. 65.

The following scene exhibits some American professors of the law in a light nearly as mean and ludicrous as that in which companies of strolling players may frequently be seen in England.

'The courts of common pleas, and those of general quarter sessions, were holding when I reached this place [York]: I found it difficult, therefore, at first, to procure accommodation, but at last I got admission in a house principally taken up by lawyers. To behold the strange assemblage of persons that was brought together this morning in the one poor apartment which was allotted to all the lodgers, was really a subject of diversion. Here one lawyer had his clients in a corner of the room; there another had his; a third was shaving; a fourth powdering his own hair; a fifth noting his brief; and the table standing in the middle of the room, between a clamorous set of old men on one side, and three or four women in tears on the other. I and the rest of the company, who were not lawyers, were left to eat our breakfast.' P. 73.

From our author's account, the bench displays no contrast of dignity to the bar.

'On entering into the courts a stranger is apt to smile at the grotesque appearance of the judges who preside in them, and at their manners on the bench; but this smile must be suppressed when it is recollected, that there is no country, perhaps, in the world, where justice is more impartially administered, or more easily obtained by those who have been injured. The judges in the country parts of Pennsylvania are no more than plain farmers, who from their infancy have been accustomed to little else than following the plough.

The laws expressly declare that there must be, at least, three judges resident in every county; now as the salary allowed is but a mere trifle, no lawyer would accept of the office, which of course must be filled from amongst the inhabitants*, who are all in a happy state of mediocrity, and on a perfect equality with each other. The district judge, however, who presides in the district or circuit, has a larger salary, and is a man of a different cast. The district or circuit consists of at least three, but not more than six counties. The county judges, which I have mentioned, are "judges of the court of common pleas, and by virtue of their offices also justices of oyer and terminer, and general gaol delivery, for the trial of capital and other offenders therein." Any two judges compose the court of quarter sessions. Under certain regulations, established by law, the accused party has the power of removing the proceedings into the supreme court, which has jurisdiction over every part of the state. This short account of the courts relates only to Pennsylvania: every state in the union has a separate code of laws for itself, and a distinct judicature.' P. 74.

We are disposed to question whether this strange judicature can be productive of the satisfactory impartiality mentioned by Mr. Weld, from the jealousies and enmities which frequently arise between those of similar pursuits, and from the little respect with which people in general treat the wisdom of their neighbours: we think that the administration of justice cannot be better advanced to dignity and perfection than by making judges a separate order of men, and allowing them high rank and respectable salaries. It is thus that the science of English jurisprudence has been enabled to boast of a Hardwicke, a Mansfield, and other illustrious names; and the best apology for such a group of judges as our author describes, is the infant and agricultural state of society in America.

(To be continued.)

*Sermons on practical Subjects, by the late W. Enfield, LL. D.
(Concluded from p. 179.)*

THE respectable character and literary reputation of the late Dr. Enfield predisposed us to a favourable perusal of these posthumous discourses; and our expectations, upon the whole, were not disappointed. Good sense and manly sentiments are to be found in them, as well as in those which were published before the author's decease. They discover, throughout, traits of genius; they contain the sentiments of a man who thought

* 'This is also the case in Philadelphia, where we find practising physicians and surgeons sitting on the bench as judges in a court of justice.'

for himself, who had derived much of the knowledge of human nature from his accurate investigation of the passions, and who drew from the storehouse of his own observations many of those useful reflections upon the principles and motives of human conduct, which are found in these volumes. If he do not aim at striking thoughts or original ideas, he still cultivates, and possesses the happy art of applying acknowledged truths to beneficial purposes. He knows well how to discriminate, and where to draw the line of distinction between characters which bear a seeming resemblance, although they differ in their more minute features, and with regard to those secret springs which actuate the conduct.

In sublimity of language, he may be said to have failed; but he is not found deficient in that smoothness of diction and perspicuity of style, which have the excellence of enabling his readers to comprehend his meaning with facility, and enter into the sentiments which he intended to convey.

A prominent feature in these discourses, is the amiable and excellent spirit which they discover, and which shows that their author drew the pictures he exhibits of Christian virtues, not only from the precepts and examples which the inspired pages so copiously afford, but also from the transcript of them in his own character. Indeed it appears not only from the testimony which his biographer has borne, but from collateral authorities, that Dr. Enfield was a man of great suavity of temper and gentleness of disposition. His mournful widow is said to have declared, that, during the thirty years in which he lived in great connubial felicity, she never once saw him out of temper. If some portion of this spirit could be transfused into the hearts and lives of the readers of these sermons, they would find them of more value than the gold of Ophir or the gems of Golconda!

The sermons contained in the first volume (which were reviewed in our number for February last), appeared to us to contain a valuable fund of morality; and their language was such as merited encomium.

The discourses comprehended in the two remaining volumes are upon the following subjects; the importance of social harmony to the happiness of life; the value of good intentions; meekness; sensibility; unexpensive methods of doing good; animated exertions in all laudable undertakings; decorum of character; universal obedience; the true ground of justification; the wisdom of suffering rather than sinning; Christ's conversation with a rich young man; the poor widow's mite; the folly of rash confidence; the characters of the hypocrite and the penitent; the folly of rejecting instruction; the criminality of uncharitable judgment in imputing good actions

to bad motives; the parable of the unjust steward; Christ's treatment of the woman taken in adultery; his last conversation with his apostles before his crucifixion; his last discourse to his disciples; the institution of the Lord's supper, &c.

The first sermon of the second volume treats of a subject which must have been highly congenial to the author's temper and character, viz. *the importance of social harmony to the happiness of life*. Among other observations in that discourse, are these:

'That this world is a scene of much distress and misery; that innumerable evils continually hang over us which we can neither prevent nor foresee; that hope frequently ends in disappointment, and pleasure in disgust; are truths which every age and country has anxiously repeated, and to which every human heart has borne its sad testimony. Such an impression, indeed, have these considerations sometimes made upon persons of a gloomy and discontented temper, that they have been ready to ask why the Almighty has made man—for what purpose a creature, burdened with so many imperfections, and exposed to so many calamities, has been called into being?

'To these murmurs religion replies, that the present life is only a small part of human existence; that this world is merely a place of discipline and trial, where, by means of those very sufferings which are the subject of complaint, we are to be fitted for a future state of eternal and ever-increasing felicity. And this consideration is undoubtedly, above all others, the most effectual to console us under the unavoidable evils of humanity, and to vindicate the ways of God to man,' Vol. ii. p. 1.

"How good and how pleasant," says the text, "is it for brethren to dwell together in unity!" intimating, not only that life may be endured, and many of its evils avoided, by such conduct, but that it may become actually and positively a state of felicity; a sentiment which perfectly agrees with the common idea of the benevolent part of mankind, who are ready on every occasion to exclaim—"What a happy world would this be, if all men loved each other!" In truth, if from the sum of evil which exists in the world we take away those afflictions which men bring upon themselves by misconduct, and those which they inflict upon others by the indulgence of the mischievous passions of envy, hatred, malice, and cruelty, so little will be left, that the most discontented man would be ashamed to put it in competition with the many good things which the bounty of our creator has bestowed upon us. The inclemencies of winter are overbalanced by the grateful warmth and serenity of the other seasons. Years of barrenness bear a small proportion to those of fertility. Compared with health, disease, not the offspring of intemperance, is unfrequent. Storms, hurricanes,

earthquakes, are uncommon occurrences; and after their worst ravages, the smiling face of nature is soon renewed. If, then, to this manifest preponderance of good in the natural world, man should, as he might, add an equal or a greater balance of moral good; if all the rational inhabitants of the earth were heartily to unite in making the most of their situation, and particularly in improving to the best advantage their connexions with each other, there would no longer be any plea for complaining of this world as a barren wilderness, or for supposing, as some have done, that man is on the whole a loser by his elevated rank in the creation.' Vol. ii. p. 4.

In the sermon which recommends animated exertions in laudable undertakings, the subject is introduced in a pleasing manner.

'When our illustrious countryman, the immortal Newton, was asked, "By what means he was enabled to make those rapid and successful advances in science which had astonished the world?" he answered, that if he had, in any respect, done more than others who were engaged in the same researches, it was not so much owing to superior strength of genius as to a habit, which he had early acquired, of close attention and patient thinking. This reply was, doubtless, in some measure, the effect of that modesty which always accompanies extraordinary merit: but, at the same time, it certainly proceeded from an experimental conviction of the advantage which is gained, in any pursuit, by a diligent application and animated exertion of the mental faculties. This great man, though unquestionably indebted to nature for uncommon talents, would never have made those wonderful discoveries and improvements in philosophy which have immortalized his name, had he not given his whole mind and heart to the pursuit of knowledge.' Vol. ii. p. 176.

'In the ordinary affairs of life, who does not see that success very much depends upon the degree of attention and spirit with which they are prosecuted? Let one man, who has made choice of an occupation in life suitable to his abilities and inclinations, and devotes himself with unwearied assiduity to its labours; and another, who has engaged in his profession reluctantly, and rather submits to its offices as a necessary burden than discharges them with pleasure from the hope of distinction, be in all other respects situated alike; there can be no doubt which of these two men will have the fairest prospect of success. The most industrious and spirited attention to business cannot, indeed, in the present state of society, infallibly secure prosperity; but the probabilities are always greatly in its favour. In the pursuit of knowledge of every kind, and in the acquisition of all useful and ornamental arts, it is evident that almost every thing depends upon diligent application and a habit of patient attention. No man ever became a scholar or a phi-

lofopher without giving up his mind to his studies, and profecuting them with ardour. No man ever diftinguifhed himfelf as a poet or artift who did not feel a confiderable degree of enthufiafm in his favourite purfuit, and apply himfelf to it with a determination to excel. Even in the fecondary accomplifhments of exterior air and addrefs, excellence cannot be attained without attention. In fhort, if I were to lay down any one general rule for acquiring diftinction and eminence in any profeflion or purfuit, it fhould be this—"Be interefted in whatever you undertake;" or, in the language of the text—"In every work that you begin, do it with all your heart."

' There is no circumftance in which civilifed life has a greater advantage over a favage ftate than in the fuperior degree of vigour and activity which it gives to every intellektual faculty. Excepting only when the ftrong impulfes of appetite or paffion rouse him to action, the favage remains in torpid indolence, and finds his higheft luxury in a total fufpention of his active powers. Having been injured to no intellektual exertions, he looks at the objects around him, not with the animated expreffion of admiration and delight, or with the inquisitive eye of curiofity, but with the vacant gaze of ignorance. Even objects perfectly new and ftrange can fcarcely for a moment attract his attention. It is faid, that when the moft fouthern coaft of America was firft vifited by Europeans, the natives, though they had never before feen a fhip, expreffed no furprife.' Vol. ii. p. 179.

In the difcourfe on fenfibility are fome excellent remarks, founded on the preacher's accurate acquaintance with the human heart. After refuting the fophiftry of thofe who, having abforbed their feelings in abftrufe fpeculation, or benumbed them by folitude and inaction, have been defirous of depreciating enjoyments which they are no longer capable of relifhing, he proceeds to inquire,—

' Who is the man that is beft qualified to contemplate the works of nature with pleafure? It is furely he whose foul is moft fufceptible of the emotions of admiration and delight from the contemplation of grandeur and beauty! Who is capable of enjoying in perfection the fatisfactions of virtuous friendship, the endearments of domeftic life, "the dear characters of hufband, father, brother," but the man whose bofom glows with every generous fentiment, and is open to every impulf of kindnefs? Who fhall experience the divine confolations of pure devotion, but he who adds to rational opinions concerning the nature and character of the fupreme being, fublime conceptions of his greatnefs, a deep fenfe of dependence upon his providence, warm feelings of gratitude for his mercies, and a foul which humbly and devoutly refigns its powers and interefts to his direktion? Where fhall true enjoyment refide, if not in the heart, which is the feat of every tender, every generous, every divine fentiment?' Vol. ii. p. 140.

It is proper to remark, that, though these discourses, in their general cast, consist of moral topics and reflections, the author sometimes takes occasion to offer, upon some doctrinal points of religion, sentiments which differ from reputed orthodoxy. He, indeed, rarely indulges in a controversial course of argument, but satisfies himself with advancing assertions, and avowing opinions which, however agreeable they might have been to his auditory, he must have known would be disapproved by many persons of learning and piety. We forbear to point out instances of this kind, in which, we think, the author is too dogmatical, and speaks too contemptuously of sentiments which did not comport with his standard of rationality. We do not think that he excelled in polemic divinity; and we are led to regret, that, in a course of sermons upon subjects professedly practical, he should have quitted his province, and interrupted the pleasure which, doubtless, many will receive from his moral, ingenious, and useful observations. Referring, we suppose, to Dr. Priestley and other modern Socinian writers, he speaks of them as ‘the distinguished friends to free inquiry,’ in opposition to others whom, with no great liberality, he denominates ‘the bigoted advocates for mystery.’ In his sermon on the folly of rejecting instruction, he gives the following directions, which, while many will applaud, others may, perhaps, be led to consider as too general and unguarded.

‘Knowledge, merely abstract and speculative, can do no harm: knowledge, which admits of a practical application, must be useful. Experience proves this to be the case in all other sciences; why should it not be true in religion? On this important subject, then, be always ready to gather up instruction and information from every quarter. Instead of starting back with affright from all who advance opinions different from those which you have already embraced, listen to their reasonings with attention; give them a candid and impartial examination, and allow them all the weight they ought to have in determining your judgment. Instead of regarding the man who undertakes to correct your opinions in the light of an adversary, consider him as your friend, at least in intention, and rather invite his society, than, like the Gadarenes, beseech him to depart from you. Be assured, that unless the fault be your own, no inconvenience can arise from the intercourse. If the opinions he advances be without foundation, the detection of their weakness and fallacy will only serve to confirm you in the truth. If they be well supported, they ought, at all events, to be adopted. If, after all the information you can obtain upon the subject, it appears to be involved in uncertainty, you will remain in suspense, and wait for new light, and in the mean time you will learn a practical lesson of moderation.’ Vol. iii. p. 125.

We have already expressed our general approbation of these discourses. The observations of the preacher upon moral topics are just and important; and his reflections are such as appear naturally to result from the respective subjects. Would our limits permit, we could produce a great variety of passages which would exhibit this divine in an advantageous point of view; and, were we to make a selection, the sermons on unexpensive methods of doing good, Nathan's reproof to David, the folly of rash confidence, the characters of the hypocrite and the penitent, the criminality of uncharitable judgment, the wisdom of foreseeing and providing against difficulties and dangers, and the folly of ambitious desires, are, in our estimation, amongst the most excellent.

We wish not to be considered as detracting from the general commendation which we have given, while we remark that the sermons contained in these volumes do not appear to be equally well composed, and that there is a degree of languor occasionally perceptible, which prevents us from considering several of the discourses as sufficiently animated and impressive. The style also is, in some instances which might be pointed out, too negligent; the paragraphs are sometimes too long, and the sentences involved. But, though these little inattentions to accuracy and elegance of composition are discernible in various parts of these volumes, we may affirm that, upon the whole, we have seldom read more pleasing discourses.

A General View of the History of Switzerland; with a particular Account of the Origin and Accomplishment of the late Swiss Revolution. By John Wood, Master of the Academy established at Edinburgh by the Honourable the Board of Trustees for the Improvement of Arts in Scotland. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cawthorne. 1799.

THE fate of Switzerland naturally excites the curiosity and the compassion of every lover of liberty. A country which resisted at different times, with such success and glory, the arms of Austria and France, has fallen an easy prey to the new republic. To what cause is this reverse of fortune to be attributed? In the work before us, this question is answered; and the five following circumstances are supposed to have produced that great event.

1st, The revolution of Geneva in 1782, which occasioned a general spirit of disaffection among the Genevans, and was the introduction to that revolutionizing system which first began in that

city in 1789, and afterwards spread with such rapidity through Europe.

‘ 2d, The establishment of a number of societies for the purpose of diffusing literary knowledge.

‘ 3d, The conduct of the government of Berne towards the inhabitants of the Pays de Vaud in 1791.

‘ 4th, Dissensions between the Catholic and Protestant cantons, occasioned by the arts and intrigues of the clergy.

‘ 5th, The want of a proper military establishment in Switzerland, and the change of government in the neighbouring states; the terror of whose arms alone preserved the internal tranquillity of the Swiss cantons.’ P. 300.

Of these we may observe, that, though they contributed in some degree to facilitate the entrance of the French into Switzerland, they do not account for the disaffection of the inhabitants of several cantons to their old form of government, or for the want of union in the confederate body. The oligarchy of Berne was of such a nature as could not but disgust a great proportion of its subjects; and yet it had been, at various times, warmly supported by them, and had obtained a great influence over the other cantons. Though the constitution was bad in theory, the exercise of the government was not proportionally oppressive; and the subjects of Berne, with reference to their neighbours, appear to have been in a comparatively happy situation. The influence of this state in the confederacy arose from the extent of its territory and its internal strength. The dissensions between the catholics and protestants do not seem to have had much effect in weakening the political union; for, in several cantons, the rights of both parties were well ascertained; and in others, as in Zurich and Berne, the ascendancy was on the protestant side. The union had been gradually weakened by the natural course of events, which must change any ill-contrived system; and the internal constitutions of the respective cantons, which subsisted only from former reputation, were crumbling away from an influx of commerce and knowledge. If the French revolution had not taken place, the Swiss might for a few years longer have retained their constitution; but so bad was its structure, that it must have fallen to pieces from its own defects.

Two circumstances will show this in a striking point of view. The two most powerful cantons, Berne and Zurich, were oligarchies—the former an oligarchy of birth, the latter from election. An individual in these cantons, whatever might be his learning, talents, or opulence, if he did not, in Berne, belong to one of the reigning families, or, in the territory of Zurich, was not a citizen of the latter place, he could

not rise to the honours of the state. In England, a great body of inhabitants have votes for their representatives in parliament, and thus acquire some political influence: but this was not the case in the cantons which we have mentioned. A few families in Berne shared among themselves all the power of the state; and the citizens of Zurich arrogated the command of all the country around them. From these exclusive privileges arose popular jealousies. A short paragraph exhibits the state of parties in one of the cantons.

‘ In the canton of Zurich the inhabitants of the territory were Jacobins, while the greatest part of the citizens of the town were friendly to their old constitution. The former, therefore, in a considerable body, advanced to the gates of the city, having the ensigns of liberty displayed before them. These men, joined by the disaffected inhabitants within the town, subdued the loyalists after a short resistance.’ P. 409.

Jacobinism, we think, had less concern in this instance than the natural desire of shaking off a dishonourable yoke.

Our author has given a true picture of the state of Berne.

‘ The government of Berne was an aristocracy of the worst form, and only supported itself by the impartiality of its laws and the mildness of its administration. The peasantry, who constituted the greatest part of the people, enjoyed particularly the favour and protection of the state. The peaceful labourer of the field was easy in his circumstances, secure in his property, and as happy as the quiet enjoyment of his own could make him: but the maxims of policy adopted, checked the enterprising manufacturer and the industrious citizen of the town, who were better informed, and had nicer feelings. The total want of commerce prevented the means of intrigue, dried up every source of wealth, and reduced the inhabitants to a perfect equality in point of fortune. They beheld not the melancholy extremes of opulence and misery, though they felt, in the strongest degree, both the pride of family, and the invidious distinction of patrician rank. Learning was universally discouraged: and those spirits, to whose perpetual ferment both the sweets of liberty and the evils of licentiousness owe their existence, seemed, before the late revolution, to be lulled into a perfect state of tranquillity, and to yield a ready obedience to a magistracy, who exercised in all public affairs a power unlimited and without control.’ P. 116.

‘ These are the general outlines of what the government of this canton was. The imperfections of its constitution are evidently

many, not to mention the whole body of the people that were excluded from any hopes of a share in public affairs. Of three hundred noble families that claimed a right, not more than eighty absolutely enjoyed it; and these, having the power of election, were much more likely to degenerate into an oligarchy, than approach in the least towards a democracy. None but a citizen of Berne could entertain the most distant hopes of an employment; for all others were debarred from carrying on trade of any kind in the town. Even civil and criminal justice were differently executed with respect to them. It was not, therefore, in the nature of the government, but in the virtue or prudence of the governing power, that the happiness of the people consisted. The wise and moderate spirit of the former, by gaining the affections of the latter, strengthened the barriers of their own authority, and erected the image of a free constitution on the basis of political despotism.' P. 128.

A good account also is given of the confederacy. With regard to the want of a standing army for its defence, we may observe, that it was remedied by the great pains taken to train up every one to the defence of the country.

'As the great object of the Helvetic confederacy was to support their independence, and to maintain a perfect neutrality in the contests of the neighbouring powers, the preservation of these illustrated the necessity of a military establishment, which should be regulated according to the plan of defence agreed upon in 1668: for other nations were possessed of standing armies; and a force of that nature could not be opposed by troops less regular and less disciplined. But the creation of a standing force was a measure too unconstitutional for a free government: it excited the fears and alarmed the spirit of a people jealous of their privileges. They therefore devised a scheme which should form a regular army with the least possible inconvenience to liberty. The youth were diligently trained to martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, and shooting with the cross-bow and the musket; the whole people were enrolled and regularly exercised in their respective militia; and a considerable number of well disciplined troops were always employed in foreign service. By these means they were capable of collecting a body of forces, which would prove formidable to any enemy who invaded their country or attacked their liberties.' P. 100.

The history of the revolution is not enriched with new facts, or recommended by excellence of composition. The style is, in many parts, very incorrect; and we presume that, as the motive for publication was to gratify present curiosity, the writer could not afford the time required by Horace for works that will stand the test of criticism. The precept, however, is as proper for the historian as for the poet.

Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1798. Vol. XVI. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robson. 1798.

THE labours of this society are continued with great assiduity, and with a judicious discrimination of objects. Among the new rewards offered, we observe one for the discovery of a red pigment for oil and water colours, equal in brilliancy and superior in durability to any hitherto used. This will be highly important to artists, as their reds are seldom durable. The premium for procuring oil from porpoises may be of double service; for, as oil is procured with difficulty from the southern hemisphere, these animals may supply it, and numerous tribes of fish may be preserved from their depredations. A premium for the discovery of a quarry, for the supply of mill-stones, which we have hitherto procured from France only, is highly commendable.

The various papers lately submitted to the society are not very important. From one of them we find that Mr. Sneyd's plantation of larches is extensive and promising. It also appears, that the marquis of Bath has been a considerable planter, having for twenty years planted fifty thousand trees annually, on the average. The Scotch fir, which is undoubtedly the yellow deal, grows on his estate to three feet in diameter, and, at the age of thirty years, the trees are worth a shilling per foot: oaks of the same age are not worth more than ninepence, and beeches not above six-pence. The chief advantage, however, of the Scotch fir is that it will grow on heathy and barren lands, where no other tree will flourish.

Mr. Philips's paper on the plantation of osiers; Mr. Harper's observations on the comparative advantages of drill and broadcast; Mr. Webster's claim for having drilled not less than ten acres, with beans, and planted the land, the same year, with wheat; that of Mr. Exter for the cultivation of turneps as food for stock; and Mr. Harper's observations on the culture of potatoes; are all of some value. Mr. Jones continues sanguine in his expectations of superseding the foreign rhubarb by that of English growth. Mr. Peart's paper, relative to his claim of the premium for cultivating waste land, contains various observations and accounts of some importance. We wish that his example may be more diligently followed.

Mr. Sneyd, having received some seeds by accident, in a good state, with raisins, found that this method of packing them in absorbent paper, with raisins or moist sugar, was the most advantageous mode of conveyance. Mr. Brown's easy method of converting weeds and other vegetable matter into

manure, deserves to be more generally known; and, as his account is not long, we will transcribe it.

‘ The mode of making it is as simple as, I trust, it will be found productive. It is nothing more than green vegetable matter, decomposed by quick or fresh-burnt lime. A layer of the vegetable matter about a foot thick, then a very thin layer of lime, beat small, and so on; first vegetable, then lime, alternately. After it has been put together a few hours, the decomposition will begin to take place; and unless prevented, either by a few fods, or a fork-full of the vegetables at hand, it will break out into a blaze, which must at all events be prevented. In about twenty-four hours the process will be complete, when you will have a quantity of ashes ready to lay on your land at any time you wish. Any and all sorts of vegetables, if used green, will answer the purpose; say weeds of every description. They will doubly serve the farmer, as they will not only be got at a small expence, but will in time render his farm more valuable, by being deprived of all noisome weeds.

‘ But if this composition answers the purpose, as I flatter myself it will, a very short time will see almost every weed destroyed, which supposing to be the case, I have made my calculations with clover, grown for the purpose; for instance, I will take one acre of clover, which at one cutting will produce from fourteen to eighteen tons of green vegetable matter, and about three tons of lime; this, when decomposed by the above process, will yield ashes sufficient to manure four acres, the value of which I estimate at something under four pounds; the clover, according to the value of land here, I will say two pounds, which, take the average of the kingdom, is too much. The lime I will also say two pounds; but that will vary, according to the distance it is to be fetched. Take them together, I think will be about the average value.’ p. 269.

Mr. Davis has communicated an account of the Indian method of cultivating poppies and procuring opium, with a description of the instrument used for making an incision on the head of the poppy.

Mr. Sheldrake’s dissertation on painting in oil, in a manner similar to that which was practised in the ancient Venetian school, is the first in the class of polite arts; and it appears to be ingenious, though there are several positions which professional painters will not readily admit.

‘ I once’ (he says) ‘ asked sir Joshua Reynolds, by what circumstances in the management of a picture he thought the harmony of colouring was to be produced? He replied, an unity of light and an unity of shadow should pervade the whole. He explained to me the difficulty of reducing the various colours of all the objects that may be included in a picture, and the various modifications of those colours, to the simple, harmonious state he described, and il-

illustrated what he had said by this simile. "A picture, to possess harmony of colouring, should look as if it was painted with one colour (suppose umber and white), and, when the chiaro-oscuro was complete, the colour of each object should be glazed over it."

'This observation, from such authority, was impressed with peculiar force on my mind; and if I can retrace its operations on a subject which has so long engaged my attention, I should say Sir Joshua's observation was the clue that guided me through all my experiments, and, I hope, will enable me to prove, that the beautiful and simple practice which he suggested as a simile, was literally the practice of that school upon whose works his ideas of colouring were founded. At the same time I may observe, that the fact seems to have eluded his observation, or he would not have used it as a comparison to simplify his description of a practice which he thought both difficult and complex.' p. 283.

We have copied this anecdote as curious, and as explanatory of the author's principle, of which in this place we cannot, with advantage, give a more particular account. The following fact, however, is too important in the theory of colours to be wholly overlooked.

'The artist will remark that, in describing the whole of the Venetian method of painting, I have said nothing of the manner of producing those demi-tints which conduce so much to the brilliancy of a picture, which are so difficult to execute, and in which he most frequently fails. Those tints are, in the ordinary modes of painting, produced by the mixture of black, grey, blue, or brown (according to the judgment of the artist), with the local colours of the objects. It is these tints which, from their being made with such colours, it is difficult to get clear, and which never are so clear in any other as in the Venetian, and in some of the Flemish pictures, which are painted upon analogous principles. The fact is, that those painters produced all such tints without the admixture of any colour to represent them, and by a method so like that by which they are produced in nature, that this circumstance alone ensures a degree of brightness to their colours, and of harmony to their shadows, that it is perhaps impossible to produce, in an equal degree, by any other mode of painting.

'It is a singular fact, which I have not skill in physics to be able to account for, though by numerous experiments I have ascertained beyond contradiction, that if upon any degree of brown, between the deepest and the lightest brown yellow, we paint pure white, in gradations, from the solid body to the lightest tint that can be laid on, all the tints between the solid white and the ground will appear to be grey, intense in proportion to the depth of the ground, and the thinness of the white laid upon it. But in every case all the tints laid upon one ground will harmonize with each

other, and form one connected chain (if I may use the expression), which will perfectly unite the highest light with the darkest shade.

‘ If then we examine the component substances of a Venetian picture, we shall find the lighter parts consist only of white, to represent the light; and of the local colours of the objects it represents, the demi-tints are imitated by an appearance almost as deceptive as the similar appearances in nature: but in every other method of painting, these demi-tints are produced by mixing some dusky colour with the local colours and the light. The comparison of these methods will afford a demonstrative reason why the Venetian must be brighter than any other mode of painting.’ P. 287.

In the class of mechanics, there are plates, with descriptions, of Mr. Jee’s improved mangle, of Mr. Prior’s improved, detached escapement for watches, and of a machine for drawing bolts in and out of ships, invented by captain William Bolton.

In the papers on colonies and trade, are accounts of some of the most valuable plants in his majesty’s botanical garden of St. Vincent. The Otaheite bread-fruit tree flourishes luxuriantly; and there are in the same garden two plants of the East-Indian bread-fruit; but these prove an inferior kind and a bad substitute. The cinnamon trees also flourish, and the clove trees are progressive.

The last paper is a letter from M. Sievers, of Bauenhoff, in Livonia. It is the production of garrulous old age, but is replete with mild benevolence and good sense. Even on the shores of the Baltic, the silk-worm may be bred with advantage. The *white-mulberry* tree is, in our author’s opinion, the only advantageous food of the animal; and it will certainly grow in England and Wales, and even so far north as Edinburgh: the seeds should be sown in plain but light garden land, rather sandy, without dung; and, in general, the tree is most advantageously propagated from seed. The worms do not require sun-shine, but only a temperate and broken light, with great cleanliness. Smoke, damp, and lightning, are known to be highly injurious. M. Sievers also mentions the *asclepias Syriaca*, which produces a kind of silk: if it be spun with cotton, a silky stuff is the produce, of which there is a manufactory in Upper Silesia. The Siberian mountain pine or cedar, the Archangel larch tree, the Weymouth pine, and some other trees, are recommended to the notice of the society, as possessing valuable qualities, particularly for naval purposes.

Lists of the rewards of agriculture, of presents to the society, of models and machines received since the last publication, and of officers and contributing members, conclude the volume.

An Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra; Vol. II. By Thomas Manning. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.

IN this volume, as in the former*, the author adheres to his original plan of suffering no demonstrable proposition to pass without a demonstration: consequently, though always ingenious, he is sometimes tedious; and beginners, by having too much explained, are in some danger of rising with obscure ideas. The doctrine of proportion is exhibited in the clearest light. We were pleased with the remarks on Euclid's definition of proportionals; and wishing, as we do, that the fifth book may be studied by all who aim at any proficiency in science, we advise those who object to that book to consider Mr. Manning's judgment concerning the disputes which it has occasioned.

'These disputes arise in a great measure from this circumstance: Logicians, not conversant with the really existing properties of magnitudes, enter upon the subject with preconceived † popular notions of proportionality, and finding at the very threshold a definition, whose use they know not, and which seems to them to render obscure, what they consider as a well known property, they conclude it to be at least an unnecessary bar to the attainment of science, and vainly employ their logic to overturn its authority. Whereas, if they would but first examine into the properties of magnitudes, they would be led of themselves to discern the utility of such a definition, and to see how totally from the purpose (not to say unmeaning) are all their objections.' P. 87.

We have known many persons who exclude the fifth book from their system of instruction, and substitute in its stead what they call a more familiar system of ratios; but their pupils in general find more difficulty in mastering the latter than in penetrating the supposed obscurity of Euclid, and, at the conclusion, feel themselves under the necessity of recurring to their old teacher for clear ideas.

We find from this work, that the dispute on negative quan-

* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 157.

† 'Incommensurability is a property of magnitudes totally unknown to the generality of those, who are unconversant with mathematical demonstration. If such be asked whether the side and diagonal of one square be in the same proportion as the side and diagonal of another, they will answer in the affirmative: But if more closely examined as to what they mean by proportionality, their explanation will shew that they are not aware that the side and diagonal of a square have no common measure whatsoever. For, as Aristotle observes, "it seems strange to the many that the greater of two things of the same kind cannot be exhausted by some *very small* measure of the less." Plato severely reproaches the mass of his countrymen for their erroneous notions on this subject, lamenting their ignorance of so common a property, as shameful, and more fit for brute beasts than rational men.'

ties still subsists at Cambridge; but they are not defended with the zeal which was formerly displayed in their support. We observe, that Mr. Manning makes a sort of apology for the use of the word *subtraction*, when a smaller quantity is to be taken from a greater.

‘As the word *subtraction* is here used in its most extended sense, generally to call this result the remainder would in some cases be inconsistent with the usual meaning of words. Thus if -4 be subtracted from 1 , the result, 5 , is not properly a remainder.’ p. 177.

He is by no means prepared to go so far as some mathematicians of his university, who reject every attempt to subtract a smaller from a greater quantity, and all terms where this attempt is made; and he seems to be perplexed in reducing impossible quantities to the general rules. Thus, according to a rule given by him, $\sqrt{-a} \times \sqrt{-b}$ becomes $\sqrt{-a \times -b}$, that is \sqrt{ab} , when, according to the common system which he vindicates, it ought to be $-\sqrt{ab}$. We are not satisfied with the mode of overcoming this difficulty, which we will give in the author's words:

‘The reason of this exception seems to have been misunderstood.—In order to discover it, we are not to make any inquiry into the supposed abstract nature of negative and impossible quantities, nor argue for and against the rule by a *reductio ad absurdum* derived from the application of other algebraic rules; because those arguments which are true when applied to real magnitudes, may have no meaning whatever when applied to imaginary quantities. The whole matter may be reduced to this—If we change real equations by the application of certain symbols, thereby producing equations of no direct meaning, and then by reverse operations produce real equations again, these last equations must necessarily be true; but there can be no possible method of proving (nor does it always happen) that an imaginary equation, introduced by the operation of one rule, may be reduced to a real *true* equation by the operation of another. Now impossible quantities are introduced by placing the symbol $\sqrt{}$ over negative quantities; therefore we cannot be sure of not introducing error, if we reduce them to possible quantities any other way than by squaring, i. e. by taking away the radical sign.’ p. 211.

We confess ourselves totally at a loss to make this distinction in arguments; and, in a science so clear as the mathematics, we ought to know the grounds for applying or rejecting general rules. Thus it might be requisite to multiply both sides of an equation by $\sqrt{a-b}$; and, in consequence, we obtain on one side this term $\sqrt{a^2 - 3ab + 2b^2}$ by multiplying $\sqrt{a-b}$

into $\sqrt{a-2b}$. The condition of the problem in one case demands that a should become nothing; and consequently our term $\sqrt{a^2-3ab+2b^2}$ becomes $\sqrt{2b^2}$ or $b\sqrt{2}$. The result must be allowed by the rules in this work; but if in the solution of the problem we should take peculiar care that a was nothing, and multiply both sides by $\sqrt{-b}$, then we should have on one side $\sqrt{-b} \times \sqrt{-2b}$, which is not allowed to be $\sqrt{2b^2}$ or $b\sqrt{2}$. Hence it is evidently requisite to state clear reasons for these different results, and give some rule which may prevent a learner from falling into error. - An attempt is made by our author; and a good one it is; but it labours under the usual difficulties attending this subject, and is above the comprehension of a learner. Indeed, the writer seems aware of this, and is almost tempted to reject his whole process.

‘ These impossible quantities are found sometimes to expedite demonstrations, but in the opinion of some excellent mathematicians, the disgusting jargon and air of mystery they introduce into mathematics, together with the confusion of ideas to which they give rise, are by no means compensated by their utility.’ P. 213.

He comes, however, to a conclusion in which all mathematicians agree with him:

‘ In one word, the mathematician ought to have no further anxiety about *negative quantities*, than to be able strictly to demonstrate that the conclusions he obtains by their means must necessarily be true:—then whether they are to be employed or not, becomes merely a question of expediency.’ P. 216.

Thus the contest may be brought to a speedy issue; but Mr. Manning should recollect, that on the one hand the truth of the conclusions by negative quantities is disallowed, and the expediency of changing signs is allowed; and it must fall to his lot to prove the truth of the conclusions; a task which, from the specimen now given, we are confident that he will execute with credit to himself and utility to the public.

The Count of Burgundy, a Play; in four Acts; by Augustus von Kotzebue, Poet Laureat and Director of the Imperial Theatre at Vienna. Translated from the genuine German Edition by Anne Plumptre, Translator of Kotzebue's Natural Son. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Phillips. 1798.

THE present play differs materially from any composition of Kotzebue which has yet been introduced to the English

reader ; it is a tale of romance not calculated to excite any strong emotion, but to interest and delight. It thus opens :

‘ HENRY.

‘ And the banners streaming
In the air around,
And the weapons clashing,
As the shrill-horns sound.

‘ *Peter.* You seem much pleased with that song.

‘ *Henry.* Yes, father.

‘ *Peter.* You sing it with much greater pleasure than your matins.

‘ *Henry.* Much greater.

‘ *Peter.* (*smiling*) Have you no fear of that being sinful ?

‘ *Henry.* No, father. I cannot suppose it sinful. Why the song is as great a favourite of your’s as of mine.

‘ *Peter.* How came you by that idea ?

‘ *Henry.* If you sing a *HORA*, your countenance is cast down, and your eyes look melancholy ; but when you sing the battle-song at Morgarten, or the song of victory at Sempach, your cheeks glow, and your eyes sparkle like the tapers before the holy virgin.

‘ *Peter.* You have been very observant.

‘ *Henry.* And, father, you have a hymn about the sword of justice and armour of faith, and you are more fond of singing that than any other hymn, because of the sword and armour being introduced.

‘ *Peter.* (*smiling*) The rogue !

‘ *Henry.* A sword is a noble thing indeed—as to the armour, that may well be dispensed with.

‘ *Peter.* What do you mean, brave youth ?

‘ *Henry.* Was the chevalier Erlach in armour when he fought at Donnerbuhel ? (*He flourishes his axe above his head.*) Ha ! methinks I hear the bugle-horns sound !

‘ *Peter.* And the Swifs at Morgarten—they wore linen frocks.

‘ *Henry.* True, father—and the fifty exiles, when they hear of the dangers of their native country——

‘ *Peter.* And come and entreat only for permission to shed their blood upon the borders——

‘ *Henry.* How they roll and sling great stones upon the knights and lords——

‘ *Peter.* Do you not remember, also, Rudolph von Erlach at Laupen ?

‘ *Henry.* How could I forget him ! I see him now bearing the standard of the town of Bern—I hear him call, “ *my friends, the victory is ours !* ”—There he falls upon the enemy with a troop of chosen young men !—Young men, father !—Ah, I was not among them !

‘ *Peter.* (*laying aside his work and rising up eagerly*) But all these were nothing compared with Arnold of Winkelried.

‘ *Henry.* Aye, father! As at Sempach he bid defiance to the forest of spears——

‘ *Peter.* And exclaimed to his companions, “ *I will force you a passage!*”

‘ *Henry.* “ *Take my wife and child into your protection!*”

‘ *Peter.* How he seized the pikes in his arms!

‘ *Henry.* And squeezed them to his breast——

‘ *Peter.* The confederates rush over his dead body——

‘ *Henry.* The enemy presses upon the rear——

‘ *Peter.* The knights are trampled to death in their armour!

‘ *Henry.* There lies the standard of Tyrol——

‘ *Peter.* Here the banner of Austria——

‘ *Henry.* Duke Leopold falls!——

‘ *Peter.* They fly!——

‘ *Henry.* Huzza! they fly!——

‘ *Peter.* (*checking himself*) You rogue! Whither are you enticing an old man?—Go, go, cut wood, and leave me to mend my basket quietly. (*He sits down again.*)

‘ *Henry.* (*slinks back to his work*) I had almost as lief lay my bones in the charnel-house at Murten.

‘ *Peter.* What are you muttering there, boy?

‘ *Henry.* Should I meet Tell and Stauffach hereafter, and they should ask, “ *Who art thou?*”—I must answer, “ *A Swiss.*”——

“ *And what exploit hast thou performed worthy of a Swiss?*”——
“ *Taught marmots to dance.*”

‘ *Peter.* Who tells thee that thou art a Swiss?

‘ *Henry.* My heart—my thirst for glory!

‘ *Peter.* Have patience, my son! Your hour will come.

‘ *Henry.* A lingering hour—slow in its progress as old Gertrude herself. I have an earnest wish to run and meet it half-way.

‘ *Peter.* Look at the apples on this tree; are they ripe?

‘ *Henry.* Not yet, but they will be soon.

‘ *Peter.* Sweet fruit to those who can wait for them.

‘ *Henry.* Why do you fan a flame in my bosom, which can find no nourishment in this wilderness; and which, therefore, only consumes me?—Why do you tell me so frequently of battles and tournaments, that knights and couriers are by day and night constantly dancing before my eyes?—As often as I hear our old horse neigh in the stable, I stretch forth my hand to seize a lance, but lay hold only on a pater-noster.—As often as the watchman in the tower blows his horn, I catch at a sword, but only wield a hatchet, I never read of any illustrious action, but the blood rushes to my heart, and the water to my eyes. I sigh to clasp to my breast every brave knight whose name I see on record, and would gladly cleave the scull of every scoundrel with a battle-axe.

‘ *Peter*. All this is as I wish.

‘ *Henry*. But wherefore, and to what purpose is all this?—Have you instructed me in so many branches of knowledge, only to sing the herdsman’s song with our peasants?—When a falcon is sufficiently trained for the chase, he must no longer be kept in the cage.

‘ *Peter*. As long as he has the hood over his eyes, he is still too young to be brought into action.

‘ *Henry*. Tell me—How old am I?

‘ *Peter*. You are turned of eighteen years.

‘ *Henry*. Look here, father. (*He cleaves a block with one stroke.*) How old was the youth who aimed this stroke? Do you think the scull of an enemy is harder to cleave than the trunk of an oak?’ P. 5.

Henry is attached to Elizabeth, the daughter of the chevalier Cuno von Hallwyl. Kotzebue is fond of describing the loves of childhood; and he never omits an opportunity. Love makes Henry almost contented with obscurity; and he does not quit the hermitage without reluctance, when he is led to claim his inheritance as count of Burgundy. The first use of his power is to demand Elizabeth in marriage. But this lady has been exposed, in the mean time, to a severe trial: she has been promised to the chevalier Walter von Blonay, her father’s friend. She behaves to him with her characteristic frankness.

‘ *Walter*. You know, dear lady, for what purpose I came hither.

‘ *Elizabeth*. Yes, my father has informed me of it.

‘ *Walter*. I would your heart had anticipated the intelligence.

‘ *Elizabeth*. So my father wishes.

‘ *Walter*. I am, indeed, above forty years old; I cannot win you by youthful attractions, neither is my love a blazing flame, but rather a genial, equal, warmth—no brittle tinsel, but a durable compound of faith and truth. My blood is no longer all fermentation, I am a stranger to humours and caprices, and am the same to-morrow as to-day, honest, without varnish. More I cannot say.—Now tell me your sentiments.

‘ *Elizabeth*. You are a worthy man, I cannot deceive you.

‘ *Walter*. Your eyes speak but too plainly: you could not deceive even a villain.

‘ *Elizabeth*. If my repose—if your own repose be dear to you, take me not as a wife.

Walter. Take you!—No, I would have you give yourself to me as a wife.

‘ *Elizabeth*. That I cannot do.

‘ *Walter*. (*aside*) I thought as much.

‘ *Elizabeth*. My father will compel—

‘ *Walter*. That he shall not.

‘ *Elizabeth.* Forgive me !

‘ *Walter.* Yet, tell me, how have I deserved your hatred ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* I hate no man, much less you ; I love all men, and you above many.

‘ *Walter.* But, notwithstanding——

‘ *Elizabeth.* My wish is to retire into a convent.

‘ *Walter.* Oh, do not take so rash a step !—However small may be my worth, you will still be happier in my castle, than in a convent.

‘ *Elizabeth.* I am bound by a vow.

‘ *Walter.* To whom ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* To St. Agatha.

‘ *Walter.* Look me in the face ! Is what you now say true ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* (*with hesitation*) No !—it is—not true.

‘ *Walter.* A vow may, indeed, bind you, but not to St. Agatha ? Am I not right in my conjectures, dear lady ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* I implore your compassion.

‘ *Walter.* I know not which of us has most need of compassion—Sooner could I resign you to the cold bosom of religion, than to the arms of a youth, who will be so truly worthy of envy.—With me, I see, it is all over—My soothing dreams farewell !—Instead of a beloved wife, I must be content with the chaplain for my companion—instead of the cries of children, I must be satisfied with listening to the yelling of my hounds.—Walter ! Walter ! what intoxication was thine !—Had’st thou not wasted the most valuable years of thy life in a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre, thou mightest now have been the husband of a wife, who would have strewed *thy* sepulchre with flowers.—But thou art rightly served !—Why didst thou seek in Palestine that happiness, which love can bestow in every clime ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* Dear chevalier !—It would give me so much pleasure to see you happy——

‘ *Walter.* Yes, if I can be so without you :—is it not true ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* I hear my father !—Ah, he will be so angry !

P. 68.

The father enters, and chides Elizabeth.

‘ *Walter.* No persuasion, chevalier. I see, with pleasure, the hop twine itself voluntarily round the elm ; but I cannot endure to see it bound by man’s hands.

‘ *Cuno.* Pooh ! pooh ! A little compulsion at first, and it soon becomes natural.—Elizabeth, prepare yourself—On All-hallows day, you are to be united to this worthy man.

‘ *Elizabeth.* Father, I cannot !—Let me retire into a convent !

‘ *Cuno.* Into a convent !—Do you mean that seriously ?

‘ *Elizabeth.* Yes, indeed, father !—And the sooner the better.—There will I pray for you.

‘ *Cuno.* What signify your prayers to me ?—He who will not

and piously, has recourse to praying. I am old and weak, I have no other support, no other joy, but you!—And can you then leave me?—As I wept by the death-bed of your mother, as I sobbed out, “*Who will nurse me in my old age?*”—the angel opened her eyes once more, smiled, pointed to you—and expired!

‘*Elizabeth. (falls weeping upon his neck)* My father! Oh, my dear father!

‘*Cuno.* I relied upon the inspiration of an expiring faint.—To see thee grow up, was my only consolation; and as I felt my strength decay, I always said within myself, “*She will be my nurse, she and my grand-children—when lamed by the gout or rheumatism, and unable to raise the spoon to my mouth, by them I shall be fed, by her and my grand-children.*”

‘*Elizabeth. (caressing him)* Father!—dear father!

‘*Cuno.* When, on account of my fidelity to my liege-lord, the count of Greyerz, I was put under the ban of the empire—when my finest castles were demolished and rased—when I was deprived of all my possessions—I thought within myself—the will of heaven be done—my Elizabeth is still spared to me, and should she but meet with a worthy and wealthy husband, then will I go and live with her; and she will take care, that in my declining years I shall want for nothing.—But, alas, poor old man! my Elizabeth prefers entering into a convent, and will satisfy her conscience with praying, that the saints may assist that father, whom she herself deserts.—Go, then, go—Gertrude will close my dying eyes. (*He weeps.*)

‘*Elizabeth. (violently agitated)* Father, you weep!—(*she turns hastily to Walter*) Chevalier, I am your wife!

‘*Walter.* I ought not to take advantage of such exquisite sensibility—Yet the feelings which lead you into my arms, are so noble, so pious, that I must draw from them sweet forebodings for my future happiness—If such the daughter, what must be the wife!

‘*Cuno. (clasping her eagerly in his arms)* She is—she is my daughter!—The blessing of a dead mother, and a living father’s gratitude, shall accompany her to her new abode; and if heaven nobly rewards filial piety, it will grant her children like herself.

‘*Elizabeth.* Your tears, and the last smiles of a dying mother, shall be ever present to me.

Walter. (taking a ring from his finger) May I present this ring—

Cuno. Give it me, my son! (*He takes the ring, puts it on Elizabeth’s trembling finger, and then unites their hands.*) The blessing of heaven rest upon you, and may your descendants flourish to the latest generations!’ P. 70.

At this instant, the ambassador of the count of Burgundy arrives to demand Elizabeth. Henry is among the train disguised. Elizabeth gives her hand to Walter, and desires the ambassador to tell his lord that she is betrothed. Henry then

discovers himself. She immediately points to Walter, exclaiming, 'Father—for the love of God!—I cannot be that man's wife!' Walter honourably resigns her; and the drama concludes as she is hailed countess of Burgundy.

To intricacy of plot and stage developement this piece has no claim; but it is an interesting tale, full of feeling, full of genius.

Tracts relating to Natural History. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. &c. President of the Linnæan Society. 8vo. 7s. Boards. White. 1798.

DR. Smith has here collected some of his early, and some of his miscellaneous works. Among these are three articles from the Analytical Review. We should not have noticed them particularly, for they contain nothing very important, if we had not observed the following remarks in the preface.

'They are now reprinted merely to shew all I have composed, or ever mean to publish, in this way. It appears to me that an author who is known should never publish anonymously upon scientific subjects. It is wasting his information and his authority. For matters of fact, the world has a right to know whom it may trust; and as to matters of opinion, a man ought to advance none that he cannot or dares not defend; at least upon subjects where, happily for truth, there is nothing to be got by opposing him.'

P. ix.

These arguments do not appear to us to be satisfactory. We do not think that an author, who is *otherwise* known, 'wastes his information and authority' by writing in a periodical work. He seems to disseminate both more extensively; and Dr. Smith allows, that some of these articles were written to communicate a more general knowledge of the merits of the respective works. In these, therefore, he did not consider himself as wasting his information. Whether his 'authority' may be lost, depends on the credit of the journal; for the person is seldom known. When an author, in a respectable publication of that kind, hazards any assertion or opinion which may be controverted, he knows that, in reality, he rests on the credit of the work; and, if he should be challenged to a support of the positions, he is expected to defend himself. We have seen the Critical Review quoted in many foreign publications as an authority, though without the name of a writer; and we have seen its opinions or assertions doubted. In the latter case, when the subject has recurred, we have enforced our sentiments; and a respectful attention has been paid to our defence. How then can the information be wasted or the autho-

city lost? and how are opinions advanced, that cannot be defended? There certainly are some objections, particularly in the case of a man of science and information, to an engagement in the task of writing for such a work; and one, which may be thought the strongest, is, that his opinions are thus published, and may be adopted by others, without adding to his fame or emolument; but he may, at any time, throw off the mask, and claim the merit of his own productions. Men of the highest credit, therefore, have been induced to become reviewers; and they have afterwards owned their share in such works, without a blush or an apology. Dr. Smith will excuse this defence, which truth and perhaps other feelings have drawn from us. We can now hail him as a *brother*; and the forgiveness of brethren, we learn from high authority, extends much farther than our claim to it.

The first dissertation, '*Reflections on the Study of Nature,*' appeared twelve years since, and was noticed in our LXIst volume. The second is the address to the Linnæan society, reviewed in the IVth volume of our New Arrangement. For an account of the third, which treats of the '*Irritability of Vegetables,*' we refer to our LXVIth volume.—To the second essay Father Fontana's notes are annexed; but these do not appear to be of any great importance. We will select a part of one of these as a specimen.

'It is common with writers to make Aldrovandus die of poverty in the hospital. Certainly the long journeys he undertook for the sake of natural history, and the considerable sums paid by him to the most celebrated artists, in order to procure exact figures of different productions of the three kingdoms of nature, so far ruined his fortune, that though supported in these expences by some sovereigns zealous for the advancement of science, as well as by the senate of Bologna, he found himself towards the end of life reduced to a kind of indigence. After his death he was honoured with a magnificent funeral, which is sufficient to refute the story of his extreme beggary; neither is it credible that those sovereigns who had contributed to his undertaking, or the senate of his own country, to which he had left his rich museum as a legacy, could have let him die of hunger. The anonymous author of the *Mélanges d'Histoire Naturelle*, printed at Lyons in 1763, adopting this fable, and saying that Urban VIII. made an epigram in honour of Aldrovandus and of his beautiful plates, which finishes with this elegant distich,

'Obstupet ipsa simul rerum fœcunda creatrix,
Et cupit esse suum quod videt artis opus,'

seems to wish to imply that this pope was contented with rewarding the labours of the philosopher with verses only. But it is a

certain fact that Urban VIII. did not obtain the pontificate till eighteen years after the death of Aldrovandus.' Fontana. p. 68.

The extract from Condorcet's eulogium on Buffon might have been spared; and the encomium on Voltaire is too extravagant. Our admiration of the former is lost in pity, when we consider his ridiculous vanity; and the lustre of the other is sullied by faults still more reprehensible.

The four next articles are taken from the III^d volume of the Analytical Review. The works reviewed were Mr. Curtis's Botanical Magazine, Dr. Berkenhout's Synopsis of the Natural History of Great Britain and Ireland, Sowerby's Easy Introduction to the Art of drawing Flowers, and Bertezen's Thoughts on the different Kinds of Food given to young Silk Worms.

The 8th article is a review of a Dutch translation of Linnaeus's System of Nature, with correspondent French and English versions. The errors are truly ludicrous, and resemble one which, we recollect, occurred in the translation of a mineralogical note, where 'Agricola dicit' is rendered 'the farmers tell us.' Perhaps a short specimen may raise a smile in the most cynical reader.

'By the *night men*, which our author says have only the appearance of an human body, we are not to understand those valuable members of society so called, whose services are so well known in every great town, however applicable the description may be; but it is the ourang outang which is meant: and if in this instance our author has been obscure, he is abundantly explicit in his descriptions of the monkeys, where his language could not be mistaken even by any night-man whatever; the style indeed being more suited to what may be imagined, than of their usual discourse, than to any I should think fit to use before this company.

'With respect to the explanation of the vegetable part of the system, a young student might be much misled by this work, and an old one puzzled in no small degree. The editor having turned to a dictionary for every word, with that perseverance for which his countrymen deserve great praise, has not always taken the right sense; for perseverance without judgment may often go very far out of the way. Thus he translates *filamenta* strings, *stigmata* stamps; and he commits errors in the characters of the classes which I confess myself incapable of unravelling. In syngenesia he says "the males and fructifiers are monstrous." In gynandria, "the males and females have the members monstrous." In monœcia, "the males and females live in the same place, but in different pipes." p. 206.

An Essay on the Genera of dorsoferous Ferns has appeared in the fifth volume of the Turin Transactions. It is now

translated from the Latin, and, as it has never occurred in our journal in its original dress, we will briefly notice it.

The dorsiiferous ferns have been divided into genera from the situation of the fructifications and their aggregate figure. From these appearances Linnæus formed nine genera; and Schreber added two others: but the arrangement is not compatible with modern discoveries; and, as the more essential parts of fructification are still unknown, Dr. Smith with great propriety prefers the involucrium, as the part of most importance in determining the genera of these plants: it is 'especially to be noted on what side and in what manner this covering bursts.'

'The involucrium is of a membranous nature, and is found in almost every fern, covering the fructification before it arrives at maturity. It originates sometimes from the margin of the leaf, but more commonly from some nerve or vein. Nor must we neglect to observe, in order to come at the knowledge of natural genera, whether the membrane and the fructification which it covers, be, with respect to the nerve or vein, terminal or lateral. The involucrium adheres firmly to the frond on one side, and on the other is more or less closely pressed to it; not but that even on this side also the air is altogether excluded, so that in whatever mode the impregnation of the flowers is accomplished, the operation goes on in secret under this covering, independent of all external communication. For the membrane closely conceals and embraces every part, till the seed-vessels being arrived at maturity, are ready to discharge their seeds; and that they are really seeds which these parts produce, has been proved by the experiments of many naturalists.

'The principal thing to be noted for our purpose, respecting this membranaceous involucrium, is the direction or mode in which it separates; that is, whether outwards (towards the margin of the frond), or inwards (on the side which looks towards the rib or nerve of the frond or of its segment). This circumstance no one has yet considered; yet it is undoubtedly of the greatest use in determining natural genera, being not only constant in every species, but in ferns whose habit and other particulars agree, it is always found to be similar. And so far is this principle from superseding or overturning the genera of Linnæus, that it rather strengthens them and confirms their characters; nor shall we often find it necessary to change the distribution of any of the Linnæan species. Neither do I make these remarks to prove the characters given by this great author now unnecessary; on the contrary, I retain them all, only begging leave to add to them my characters taken from the involucrium, in order that his genera may be established on the more firm foundation, and that we may have certain principles on which to found new ones.

'I mean at present to treat of such ferns only as are called dor-

siferous, that is, which bear their fructification on the back of their frond. I therefore designedly pass over, not only those cryptogamous plants which professor Schreber in his new edition of the genera plantarum has denominated miscellanæ, but I likewise omit ophioglossum, osmunda, and onoclea. This last is by the learned professor just mentioned erroneously referred to those ferns whose capsules are furnished with a ring. To his observations upon ophioglossum and osmunda every body must assent.' P. 226.

The dorsiferous ferns are first arranged in sections. Those of the first section are styled annulatæ; these have the capsules on footstalks with two valves and one cell, bound with a jointed, elastic ring; and the fructifications are generally covered with a membranous involucre. This section contains the acrostichum, polypodium and asplenium of Linnæus, &c. The new genera are the scolopendrium, woodwardia, vitaria, davallia, &c. The generic characters are chiefly taken from the situation of the fructifications, their distinctness, form, &c.

Those of the second section are denominated thecatæ; the capsules are sessile, bursting by pores, destitute of a ring, and naked. This section contains three genera—gleichenia, marattia and danæa. A plate illustrating the characters of the new genera, is subjoined. On the whole, we consider this paper as an important addition to the stock of botanical knowledge.

The tenth tract contains a description of a new species of plant called sprengelia. It belongs to the same natural order as the epacris of Linnæus's supplement. It properly appertains to the syngenesia monogamia; but this order Dr. Smith is inclined to abolish, and therefore places the sprengelia in the pentandria monogynia, near the azalea, with the epacris. One species only, the 'incarnata,' is mentioned; and a coloured figure is added. This plant is a native of New South-Wales.

Another native of New Holland is the next object of description—the westringia of the order of didynamia gymnospermia: it belongs to the first section of M. Jussieu's labiatæ. The only known species is the westringia rosmariniformis. 'The leaves are slightly bitter, not aromatic; the flowers not inelegant, though without smell.' A coloured plate is subjoined.

Another new genus follows from the same country. It is styled boronia, of the natural order of rutaceæ, allied to the diosma, of the class octandria and order monogynia. Four species are here described, with the aid of coloured plates. They appear to be elegant plants, generally aromatic, though not always pleasingly so; and promise to be ornaments of the green-house. It

is named from Borone, an humble but faithful follower of Dr. Sibthorpe. He was a native of Milan, and had rendered himself an amiable and interesting companion to his master. His death was occasioned by an accidental fall at Athens. A short account of his life is given near the close of the volume.

The History of London and its Environs. Embellished with Maps, Plans, and Views. Parts I. II. III. IV. V. VI. 4to. 10s. 6d. each. Stockdale. 1796-7-8-9.

IN the publisher's advertisement, prefixed to the first part, we are informed that this work will

'comprehend a description of London and the circumjacent country, to the distance of from twenty to thirty miles. It will consist of eight parts, making two large quarto volumes, one particularly relating to the metropolis, the other to its environs. Besides all the more interesting historical notices to be derived from books, original descriptions of every important place, drawn from actual survey, will be given; and no pains will be spared to render the whole equally a fund of useful information and of liberal amusement.' p. iii.

Having six-eighths of the work now before us, we are enabled to give some opinion of the manner in which the above-mentioned large and liberal promises have been fulfilled; and, that our readers may know the grounds of that opinion, we shall lay before them a sketch of what has actually been done: they may then compare the result either with the publisher's advertisement, or with their own expectation and opinion of what a *History of London and its Environs* ought reasonably to contain.

In the first part we have a general account of Middlesex, Surry, Kent, Essex, and Hertfordshire, not collected, in every instance, particularly in the case of Essex, from the latest authorities. We also meet with a description of the river Thames, from its source to its entrance into the sea, with short notices of some of the most remarkable places by which it passes, and an account of some canals. The new river, likewise, is accurately described; and many particulars are given of its curious history, and the more curious progressive increase of wealth which it has yielded to its proprietors.

The parts here marked IV. and V. (but which must be II. and III. when the work shall be bound) contain an account of the principal towns and villages, within the limits prescribed, of Middlesex, Surry, and Kent. The accounts of places within twelve miles of London are taken from Mr. Lysons' late

work ; a circumstance which we do not mention as an objection ; for where can better authority be found ? Our principal objection is to the proportion of matter given to each county or particular place. In this we are at a loss to know by what rule the compiler could have been guided—surely not by circumstances of grandeur or curiosity. Of these two parts, Middlesex occupies only *fifty-two* pages, Surry *thirty-six*, and Kent *two hundred and sixty-nine* ! With regard to individual places, Sevenoke takes up as much room as Greenwich ; Tunbridge more than both ; and Maidstone, which is six miles beyond the utmost limits prescribed, occupies more than four times as much as Greenwich. The accounts, though in general short, would have been sufficient for the purposes of the common reader, had they been fairly proportioned, and had the distance of each place from London been noticed. Those who wish for more than a superficial account, either historical or antiquarian, will be inclined to consult Hasted, Morant, or Lysons.

Parts II. III. and VI. contain the history of London from the earliest times to the year 1617. This is taken principally from Maitland, with occasional references to general historians. The history of London, written upon Maitland's plan, is in many respects the history of the kingdom at large ; and as new lights are sometimes thrown upon parts of that history, they may be advantageously consulted in a new compilation ; but, as far as we have compared the present with Maitland, we perceive no material additions in matters of local antiquity. The style, however, is improved ; and many reflections are introduced which mark the liberality of the present times.

Such are the contents of the six parts of this work already published. The performance, upon the whole, has disappointed our expectation. The length of time which has elapsed since the last editions of Stow and Maitland—the immense increase of the metropolis, and, above all, the alterations arising from the destruction of ancient and the erection of new public buildings, streets, &c. point out the necessity and utility of a new history, or, at least, a continuation of the labours of Stow or Maitland. It is obvious, however, from the sketch we have given, that in these respects the present undertaking is deficient, and that when the two remaining parts shall be completed, much of what was *proposed* will not be executed. For these two parts, there remain the accounts of Hertfordshire and Essex, which, according to the scheme, will take up one of them, while the other must include the history of London for nearly two centuries ; and, after all, we have not a *description of London*, which was promised in the introduction. But here the author shall speak for himself.

Having put the question,

‘Is a new history of London necessary in the present state of things?’ he answers, ‘assuredly it is. Let those who recollect what it was but five and twenty or thirty years ago, relate what they have lived to see. Let them describe if they can the magical metamorphosis of Durham-yard, of Somerset-house and the Savoy, of Fleet-ditch and its purlieus, of Marybone north of Oxford-street, of the vicinity of Broad St. Giles, of old St. Luke’s and upper Moorfields, of St. George’s-fields and Greenwich-road, &c. and of a multitude besides, and it will appear that volumes might be written on the subject of the very recent additions and improvements. Indeed, to give a proper representation of London, even to its own inhabitants, the history of it ought to be written once every year; for scarcely a month passes in which there is not brought forward some plan or another of elegant embellishment, of public or private utility, of civil or commercial improvement. Of consequence, the lapse of a short time will render this work, like all those on the subject which have preceded it, obsolete and imperfect; and fathers of the next generation will be pointing out to their sons the spot on which Temple-bar stood, and leading them through spacious and wholesome streets of magazines, shops, and palaces, reared where the shambles of Fleet-market and of Whitechapel now pollute the earth and poison the air.’ P. 3.

From the glaring inconsistency between this passage and the contents of the work, we must leave the compiler to extricate his labours as well as he can. To us it appears that the plan was rashly conceived and is radically wrong. The *environs* of London cannot be supposed to extend *thirty* miles; yet from this extension a great part of the work is employed on the description of places which have no connection with London, while London itself, its palaces, churches, halls, hospitals, &c. are overlooked.

The plates and maps are, a large four-sheet map of the country from twenty to thirty miles round London; a plan of the canals; a large map of the Thames; a view of Blackfriars bridge with St. Paul’s; a view of Fairlop-oak, in Hainault forest; a view of the monument and of the city before the great fire in 1666; a survey of London after the fire in the same year; a four-sheet plan of London in its present state, comprehending the surrounding villages, four feet eight inches by three feet three inches, being twenty-nine miles in circumference; a view of London from Dr. Lettsom’s house at Camberwell; the queen’s walk in the green park; Westminster-bridge with the abbey; Somerset house; the tower; maps of Essex and Surry; view of Greenwich hospital; Chelsea college; London from Highgate, &c.

These maps appear to be executed with accuracy; and the

plan of London is, we think, particularly excellent. The views are well engraven; but, being chiefly of the picturesque kind, they are rather ornamental than useful.

A Description of the Genus Cinchona, comprehending the various Species of Vegetables from which the Peruvian and other Barks of a similar Quality are taken. Illustrated by Figures of all the Species hitherto discovered. To which is prefixed Professor Vahl's Dissertation on this Genus, read before the Society of Natural History at Copenhagen. Also a Description, accompanied by Figures, of a new Genus named Hyænanche: or, Hyæna Poison. 4to. 12s. Boards. White.

THE bark is a medicine of so great importance that it ought not to be trusted to common observers, or to be considered with slight attention. If the apprehension, which Condamine raised 50 years since, were the only reason for seeking other species of the same genus, to supply the deficiency which the decortication of so many trees would occasion, it would be sufficient to excite the most anxious search for a new source of this valuable medicine. Twelve species are now found, which are brought together in this short description. Professor Vahl's Dissertation on the Cinchona is prefixed. This author, after some trite remarks on the necessity of ascertaining the true species of each medicinal plant, gives a brief history of the cinchona, and of the different species known to him. The bark first brought to England was called in America the bark of Loxa: and it is not the common officinal bark, though it may probably be nearly related to it. It seems to be the species of the early editions of the *Systema Naturæ*, and of the sixth edition of the *Genera Plantarum*.

The first species of the genus in question is the *C. officinalis* of Loxa, described by Condamine.

The second is the *C. pubescens*, so called from the down on the upper part of the stalks. Its medical properties have not been observed.

The third is the *C. macrocarpa*, the *C. officinalis* of the later editions of the *Systema Vegetabilium*. It is an inhabitant of Santa Fé.

The *C. Caribbæa* has been often described in our language. The *C. corymbifera* occurred to Dr. Forster in the islands of the Pacific Ocean, and therefore can scarcely be called a production of the old continent.

The *C. lineata* and *floribunda* greatly resemble each other. The bark of the latter (the *Quinquina Piton* of Badier) is equal in efficacy to that of the *C. officinalis*, except in being slightly laxative, and occasionally emetic—qualities probably consequent on its being used in a more recent state than the Peru-

vian bark. The *C. brachycarpa* grows in Jamaica. It resembles the *C. floribunda* in appearance, and probably in qualities.

The ninth species is the *C. angustifolia*, described by Schwartz and Vahl.

A short account is added of what is perhaps a new species of the cinchona, found accidentally by Mr. Brown (captain of a vessel employed in the southern whale fishery) in the province of Quito. We shall transcribe his description.

‘ Notwithstanding the predilection in favour of the young tree, I am apt to suppose its bark possesses only an imaginary virtue. When reduced to powder, both are so nearly alike, that it is extremely difficult to distinguish them: and in whatever form it is given, they are equally powerful and efficacious. A gentleman of some eminence told me that he thought them a tenth stronger than the Cortex usually sold in London. As I had some of the latter in substance from the Hall, whose genuineness I knew could be depended upon, the following is an observation or two I made on that subject. Tecamez bark differs from that sold by the Hall in colour, strength and taste. Its colour is more a brownish green, spread over with a whitish moss; the inside darker, and of a deep red inclinable to black. When broke it appears of a pale red, and has a most pleasant bitter taste, rather aromatic, but not so astringent as that I had in the medicine chest. When boiled however with the same quantity of water, or infused in it when cold, its strength is superior, and its taste far more agreeable. If its virtues are drawn off by spirits, they equal that I had from the hall, and in four cases sat easy upon the stomach, when the other did not. As many of our people unhappily laboured under a severe ague on our return, I thought that a proper opportunity of trying their effects; for, whatever may be advanced to the contrary, experience has taught me that in many instances bark is highly serviceable in this disorder. Having selected two people with the same symptoms, I gave it to them in equal doses, and by the use of Tecamez bark one recovered a week before the other. I tried it again—the difference was five days. I had only an opportunity of repeating it a third time, and it was seven. But I would not wish to be understood as if I thought these few cases sufficient to ascertain its superior effects with certainty. That must be left to future experiments, and to gentlemen of greater penetration, and who have more ample opportunities of making them than the writer of this article can pretend to possess.

‘ All the trees I saw grew on the side of a hill, and in a dry barren soil. The mould was of a red colour intermixed with small stones, and not above a foot deep; for several of their roots appeared at the surface, and few that I examined were covered more than two inches by the earth. None of them were in

bloom in August, nor had the least appearance of seed. Neither could I obtain any of it at Tecamez. This is an article they set very little value on themselves, and are wonderfully surpris'd it should be enquired after. Of the tree indeed they are more careful, and very cautious in shewing it. Had it not been for the friendship of the gentleman I mentioned, it is more than probable I should have returned without seeing it at all.' p. 32.

The usual mode of giving it is in infusion; and it is found to differ considerably from the yellow bark: the plant of the latter is not yet known.

The *C. longiflora* is a plant of Guiana, perhaps the same with the *C. Caribbæa*. The *C. spinosa* is an inhabitant of St. Domingo: it is described in the *Journal de Physique* for 1790.

The *hyænanche globosa* is found near the Cape of Good Hope. Its fruit is collected, hidden in the carcases of lambs, and placed where the hyænas usually come. It infallibly destroys them.

The plates of this volume are tinted *en noir*. They are accurate and elegant; and the whole is an useful and respectable performance.

Naval Sermons preached on board his Majesty's Ship the Impetueux, in the Western Squadron, during its Services off Brest: to which is added, a Thanksgiving Sermon for Naval Victories; preached at Park-street Chapel, Grosvenor Square, Dec. 19, 1797. By James Stanier Clarke, F.R.S. Domestic Chaplain to the Prince of Wales, Vicar of Preston in the County of Sussex, and Morning Preacher at Park-street Chapel. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Payne. 1798.

SERMONS adapted to particular occasions and circumstances, and to distinct classes of men, have a very useful tendency. Here, a great variety of taste, and of talent, is allowed to the preacher. The same discourses, which would be well adapted to a court, would be lost upon a congregation of rustics; and those which are calculated for the meridian of the metropolis would ill suit the latitude of the expanded ocean. A judicious preacher, and one who makes utility his chief object, will therefore consult the character, situation, and circumstances of his hearers, both in the choice of his subjects and in his manner of treating them. It is, without doubt, a difficult task for a man of liberal education, and of refined manners and sentiments, to instruct the vulgar with success; and we imagine, that the preacher at Park-street chapel found it easier, and more congenial to his taste, to address his polite audience, than to model his discourses to the sturdy character

and the rude understandings of uninstructed seamen in the *Impetueux*.

We must do Mr. Clarke the justice to say, that his subjects, and the texts which he has selected, are judiciously chosen. In the first sermon, he considers 'a life of peril as favourable to the attainment of virtue:' in the second, he treats of 'the knowledge of God derived from the contemplation of his works;' and, in the third, of the importance and value of the christian religion; on which occasion he shows the inefficacy of reason, unassisted by divine revelation, to lead the mind to a proper knowledge of God. As a specimen of his style and manner, we select some of his remarks upon this subject.

' They who go down to the sea in ships, and occupy their business in great waters, have opportunities of beholding the wonders of creation, and the sublime appearances of nature, whether in beauty, grandeur, or horror; which those, who are engaged in the more tranquil and stationary employments of life, cannot enjoy.

' For though we may look through Nature up to Nature's God; though by reasoning on the several glories of creation, we may convince ourselves that there is a Supreme Being, by whom the heavens and the earth were finished, and all the host of them, and by whom man was formed out of the dust of the ground; yet still we shall find ourselves in a state of darkness and obscurity, with nothing more than the glimmering light of human reason to guide us amid all the dangers and difficulties of life, or to console us when we arrive at its awful termination.' P. 41.

' But this reason, though it may serve the purposes of your natural state, or the ordinary course of life, is not sufficient, without divine aid, for your spiritual concerns; and would prove of itself a very insufficient and devious guide to the important truths of religion. It has indeed often been described, as the helm that would direct us in our passage through the voyage of time; but, unless religion is the pilot, we shall never reach the haven of eternal peace. Reason, alone, cannot dispel the mists of prejudice, or correct the variations of error: how often is it turned from its course, by some seducing pleasure, which attracts it to the land! how often, lost in ease and indolence, it strikes upon the rock, or drives upon the quicksand! how often, when the storms of passion arise, does it leave the vessel to its fate; and when it is impelled, a mere wreck, to the brink of destruction; reason, agitated and alarmed at its own weakness, would sink into the opening gulph; if religion did not seize the helm, and direct the shattered vessel to the shore.

' When labouring under the oppression of sorrow, reason may tell us, that man is born to trouble as the sparks fly upward: that we must receive the bread of adversity, and the water of affliction; and can alone hope to close this scene of tribulation in the grave.

In this uncertain and gloomy state, reason leaves us, with but a faint ray of light, to guide us onward in our pilgrimage.

‘The christian religion here comes to the aid of man; and, exhorting him to be of good cheer, declares that all are equally under the care of a just and merciful God: but that, in order to become perfect and upright, they must pass through the discipline of tribulation, and must encounter adversity in the face of their fellow creatures. Thus will their virtues be proved and the infirmities of their mind be destroyed. As many as I love, said the spirit, I rebuke and chasten; to curb their passions, to humble their pride, to wean them from the transient objects of time, and to direct their thoughts to the glories of eternity.’ P. 42.

Such reflections as these do honour to the preacher’s head and heart; and our readers will perceive the pertinent language addressed to mariners, with which he clothes his just observations. We think this one of the best sermons in the collection, and do not hesitate to offer another extract from that part which describes the christian’s confidence in the prospect of death.

‘Our blessed Saviour not only abated the agonies of death by the glorious doctrines he taught; but descended into the gloomy mansions of the grave: that its terrific darkness, which hitherto had appalled the heart of man, might, by the brightness of his presence, be dispersed for ever. There is therefore no abode after this life, no place, where the departed soul of man awaits the awful mandate of resurrection, in which Jesus Christ has not himself appeared. From the moment of the body’s dissolution, to the period of its delivery from death, he has borne its sorrows, beheld each solemn grandeur, and explored that unknown abode, which every revolving day renders nearer to us. And we may rest assured, the same benevolent compassion, which urged him to make this world an happier state for his disciples, during their mortal probation, has induced him to alleviate every pain, and to remove any dreadful horror, that the soul might otherwise have experienced on leaving its earthly tabernacle. When the spirit of man has ceased to animate this perishable frame; and has entered trembling on that expanse, which at present seems to stretch out its impervious gloom; his merciful Redeemer will extend the arm of power, that supported St. Peter on the deep; and will exclaim, as he did to the disciples, — *Be of good cheer! it is I! be not afraid!*’ P. 52.

The remaining sermons are ‘on the necessity and advantages of obedience,’ — ‘on the naval character,’ — ‘on the love of our country,’ — and on some other subjects.

From our selection, the reader will perceive that Mr. Clarke is entitled to some commendation for the composition of his discourses, and the appropriate turn which he frequently gives to his reflections. He seizes the advantages of his situation,

and, when in view of the enemy's coast, takes occasion to contrast the advantages of the British constitution and government, with the disorders, licentiousness, and tyranny, which have sprung up in France. He also, very properly, enforces obedience, and a regard to discipline and subordination. He recommends to those whom he addresses the love of their country; and he holds up to their view the characters of Columbus and captain Cook, as objects of applause and imitation.

In speaking of the British constitution, he justly remarks, that

‘ Every true and loyal Briton will readily confess the advantages, which result from living under a government; where, in every part, appears a gradual, regular, wise subordination: where the power that rules is circumscribed within certain limits; and the duty of those who obey is determined by known laws; where no change can be made in the nature of any claims, which the power that governs, and the people who are subject to it, mutually possess, without some extraordinary cause to justify such an innovation: where the sovereign authority is unmingled with tyrannic or arbitrary sway; where justice is executed in mercy; and those, who are invested with the dignity of its administration, have not the privilege of making laws, according to their passions or understandings; but are solely appointed to enforce those already prepared, by the wisdom and experience of the legislature, for the common welfare.

‘ We enjoy, by this means, a degree of security, of public happiness, and interior tranquillity, for which a very large and oppressed part of Europe languishes in vain. Hence it is, that we exult as Englishmen in the honour of our character, the excellence of our constitution, and a course of national prosperity: while the country, whose shores you behold; and against whose insulting menaces, you now offer, and have so long offered, a proud defiance; contains scenes of confusion and disorder, of tyranny and misrule, of persecution and murder; at whose horrors Europe trembles.’ p. 66.

‘ The maxims of the British constitution, appear valuable, in proportion as they are made the object of our serious attention. Consider them, not only as the laws, by which you are governed, and unto which obedience is therefore due, but as forming a code, fraught with consummate wisdom; the boast of this country, and the envy of every other nation. Consider them well, and you will perceive, that they produce whatever happiness and security can be expected from any human institution; and that they possess, in an extraordinary degree, the means of constant renovation, and the principle of gradual improvement. The honest pride, which arises within us, on hearing what arduous struggles our ancestors made to obtain these advantages, animates the heart to support and pro-

test them. We consider the earth as sacred, where these heroes have long slept in death. Their venerable monuments, now mouldering beneath the power of time, are dear to the youthful patriot ; who, as he passes by them, exults in these vestiges of his country's glory, and feels an ardent hope, that his name may hereafter be thus enrolled, in the records of its fame.' P. 156.

Of the love of our country Mr. Clarke thus speaks :

' The christian religion has greatly contributed to enlarge and to correct this affection for our country ; giving it a liberal and open character, which it did not formerly possess. Before the establishment of christianity, it rather tended to contract, than enlarge the heart. A superior wisdom to that of man, was requisite to confine its influence within proper bounds ; and to prevent its nurturing that arrogant and haughty spirit, which the nations both of Greece and Rome considered as a patriot virtue.

' The untutored savage loves his country, though it contains little more, than the wretched habitation, the trackless wilderness, and the uncultivated waste. He roves at large amid these scenes, which are alternately desolate and inhabited. But as the progress of civilization advances, and his rude character becomes lost in the milder customs of polished society ; when the solitary enjoyment of natural liberty, is exchanged for legal security and social happiness ; the love of our country, gradually displays features more liberal and attractive. Yet still, until Jesus Christ had revealed the only foundation of all virtue, and taught mankind, that divine lesson for public spirit and private friendship,—“ as ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so unto them ;” until, they had seen Him shed the tears of real patriotism, and had been exhorted, both by precept and example—to love their enemies, to bless their persecutors, and to do good unto those, that hated them ; this virtue, like all the rest, was vain and imperfect. A real love for our country, must be founded on the extensive basis of philanthropy, and genuine philanthropy is no where taught, but by the precepts of the christian religion.' P. 157.

' Anxious to maintain those blessings which your ancestors enjoyed, and have bequeathed, with such increase of happiness, to their posterity ; let every one preserve a love for his country, untainted and pure : that when times of unusual danger, demand the united exertions of a nation's zeal, with all the disinterested virtues of a patriot mind ; in every work that you begin, in the service of your king, and country,—you may go forth with all your heart, and prosper.

' On that altar, which our forefathers reared to Liberty, the flame of patriotism arises ! Around it, let every age and rank assemble : the nobles, and the rulers, and the elders of the people, and take that oath, which the Genius of Britain proffers :—We swear

that we will remember the Lord! We will fight for our brethren, our sons, our daughters, our wives, and our houses! and will firmly unite, in the preservation and defence of her, who dwelleth, with so much terribleness, in the clefts of the rock; whose rampart, and whose wall,—is from the sea!’ P. 170.

After this display of quotation, our readers, we presume, will judge with us, that a vein of eloquence, and of just sentiment, runs through these discourses. They are, indeed, declamatory and immethodical; but they are animated and bold, and are enriched with a variety of happy illustrations. In the Thanksgiving Sermon, we may add, are some well-timed observations on the character and merit of British sailors.

The Works of the late John Mac-Laurin, Esq. of Dreghorn: one of the Senators of the College of Justice, and F. R. S. Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

THE author of these volumes was son of the celebrated Colin Mac-Laurin; but his pursuits were widely different from those of his father. The liveliness of his temper deterred him from entering the church, for which his friends intended him: he applied himself to the Scotch law with success; and, in 1788, by the interest of his friend Mr. Henry Dundas, he was promoted to the bench under the title of lord Dreghorn. His reputation and ability justified the promotion; and the period had not then arrived when no reputation and no ability could atone for uncourtly opinions.

‘ Mr. Mac Laurin, from his earliest years, was the friend and lover of liberty.... The welfare and happiness of mankind were the great objects of his speculations: he was jealous of the encroachments of the crown, and regarded as unjustifiable every attempt to oppress the people.

‘ He had seen America struggle for independence; he predicted the consequence of the fatal measures pursued against her; and with those who thought as he did, he shared the obloquy of the day: he saw America successful, he could not but rejoice in the event. He lived to see another revolution; monarchy abolished and a struggle for a republic, in France: he lamented the cruelties that were exercised in this bold attempt: he pitied the monarch who fell; he looked forward with anxiety to the new government: he beheld, in the dawning republic, a nation contending for its freedom; and an audacious experiment attempted,—the reformation of mankind: he thought the old system in France bad, what the new one would be no man could predict. The armed coalition he viewed with indignant regret; the attempt to crush that dis-

tracted country, to him appeared unjust and impolitic : left to themselves a short time, he thought, would determine both the fate of that great empire, and also the hitherto problematical question, whether an extensive nation can enjoy the republican form of government? He always thought, if foreign powers had not interfered in order to restore the old system, a civil war was inevitable : it would be bloody, but could not be long. He foresaw, that the powers of Europe coalesced, would make France, to a man, rally round the standard of liberty ; and accordingly, he beheld the best disciplined armies in the world fall before raw and unexperienced republicans : the continent was deluged with blood, and the genius of liberty soaring triumphant, threatened to revolutionise the globe.' Vol. i. p. xvii.

The first volume consists of poems.

' At a very early period of life,' (says his biographer) ' he displayed a natural turn for poetical composition, and, among his school-fellows, was distinguished by the name of poet. Indeed our author had not only an early, but a constant attachment to the Muses, and it may, therefore, be thought surprising, that he did not exert his poetical talents more than he has done ; and that what he has written is chiefly upon local subjects, and such as probably, in these times, will not please the republic of letters.' Vol. i. p. viii.

To us it is not surprising that Mr. Mac-Laurin should have forborne to write more poetry ; for he appears to have possessed few characteristics of a poet. On the address to the powers at war he is said to have bestowed much pains ; it is one of his last productions, and we agree with the editor in thinking it the best ; a more favourable extract, therefore, cannot be chosen.

' Ye continental kings ! beware ;
The deep and dubious game forbear,
The fateful feud compose ;
Think what the issue, if you fail,
And balance in an equal scale
Your forces and your foes.

' Say which from principle enroll'd,
And which seduc'd by crimps, or gold ?
The candid answer make :
Your troops by that criterion try'd,
War, as the question you decide,
Continue or forsake.

' Th' enthusiast nation, right or wrong,
Is supernaturally strong,
By no defeat dismay'd ;
Superior strength and skill it braves,
Unless its force by fools or knaves
Mismanag'd, or betray'd.

' Can you arrest the lava's tide,
Cascading from the mountain's side,
That in combustion roars?
Or ocean, when the tempest raves,
And his ungovernable waves
Dash deluge on the shores?

' If wild fanaticism's zeal
Could on your ancestors prevail
To join the mad crusade,
To efforts of impassion'd mind
That most can dignify mankind
Must liberty persuade.' Vol. i. P. 171.

Mr. Mac-Laurin was more addicted to light poetry. The following piece seems to have more point than any other in the volume.

' The Signs discontented.

' The Signs inquir'd why Jove had not,
In heav'n, a stock of females laid in,
And but one woman there had brought,
Who was, provoking, still a maiden?

' Bluntly the Ram set forth, that he
Often had cast a sheep's eye at her;
Aquarius represented, she
Had often made his teeth to water.

' The Bull wou'd have the god to know,
Either he would no longer stay there;
Or, if he did not get a cow,
In faith he wou'd Pasiphae her.

' Poor Virgo, how to please them all
Being really at a loss to know,
To Sagittarius said, I shall
Have more than two strings to my bow.

' Nay, if to them I should prove kind,
Others would make the same request:
Shall I be with a Scorpion join'd?
Or take a Cancer in my breast?' Vol. i. P. 9.

The poetical taste of Mr. Mac-Laurin may be estimated by what he says with regard to length of verse.

' I never could see any solid reason for making verse essential to epic poetry; nor when such poems are written in verse, for using the long one of ten syllables, that of eight would answer just as well. Nobleness of thought and expression, not length of verse, are necessary to grandeur and sublimity.

‘ To have the power to forgive,
Is empire and prerogative ;
And 'tis in crowns a nobler gem,
To grant a pardon, than condemn.

‘ Would any word of addition to each of these verses improve them ?’ Vol. ii. P. 337.

Much poetry cannot be expected from one who could quote these lines for their ‘ nobleness of thought and expression.’ In the same essay the author says that Pope’s ‘ translation of the Iliad is, in truth, much superior to the original, with which I have often compared it in many of the most trying passages.’

The second volume consists of prose essays on various subjects. Some of these are upon legal points. We meet with some sensible remarks upon the punishment of transportation, which, the writer argues, ought never to be inflicted but by way of mitigation. What he says upon trial by jury merits attention.

‘ Some have thought, that the admiration of the mode of trial by a jury of the vicinage, is a vulgar error. The object of the law (they say) in all trials is, or ought to be, to get a set of judges as impartial and intelligent as possible. To acquire a thorough knowledge of the rules of justice and evidence, which are, and must be complicated in every great commercial country ; to be able to detect the fallacy of ingenious pleadings, and gather the truth from contradictory testimonies, requires a liberal education, deep study, and long experience. It is plain, therefore, that an occasional jury cannot be so intelligent as judges. A standing, or select jury, is a very different thing ; it comes very near to a set of judges.

‘ As to impartiality, it is manifest that a jury of the vicinage must be the most partial tribunal that can be composed. The law of England, sensible of this, has introduced a variety of checks and precautions, which, however, some late trials have proved not to be sufficient ; particularly those of the Birmingham rioters, who burnt the houses of Dr. Priestly and some others. There are no such checks in Scotland ; but the public prosecutor in that country, aware of the danger, has frequently brought criminals from different counties to be tried at Edinburgh, in order to avoid local passions and prejudices. This, however, is but an imperfect remedy ; for there are passions and prejudices which are universal ; such as those arising from politics, religion, and even property. Would it be just to try a man, accused of being a poacher, by a jury of landed gentlemen associated and zealous to support the game laws ? It has often happened, both in political and judicial arrangements, that no attention has been paid to certain steps of procedure, on account of their obscurity and seeming insignificance ; though, in reality, they were of the utmost consequence. The power of

summoning the jurors is an instance: if it be abused, all the subsequent and derivative procedure must be unsafe.

‘ It appears from Blackstone, that great pains have been taken in England as to that matter; but, after all, there seems to be reason to think that enough has not yet been done. We often find it asserted, in speeches and pamphlets, that the jury was packed. Now, since the English have a *vox signata*, a particular expression for that manoeuvre, it is plain that it is not impossible, nor indeed uncommon. It will probably be found that the error is in the first step. The jury ought not to be summoned by the sheriff, or by the court, or clerk of court.

‘ Since an occasional jury cannot be as intelligent and impartial as judges, it should seem that jury trial has been adopted, not because it was thought good in itself, but because it was thought better than trial by judges; of whom a jealousy has been entertained, chiefly on account of their being appointed by the crown.

‘ If this be the principle, it follows, that the power of summoning a jury ought to be vested, so as to exclude all possibility of influence from that quarter. The jurors ought to come on by some other method which would have that effect.

‘ The allowing challenges to be made, without cause, to a great number of the jurors, shews a very good disposition in the law of England, but it is insufficient. The special jury seems to be the fairest, and indeed as fair as possible. Why is it not the mode of trial in criminal cases, as well as civil? or, why not adopt the principle of the mode of trying a contested election in the house of commons? It is curious enough, that a man is certain of a fair trial as to the merits of a controverted election, but must be exposed to a packed jury when arraigned for his life.’ Vol. ii. p. 43.

He proceeds to point out defects in this part of the Scottish law; he argues that challenges without cause should be admitted; and that the president of the criminal court ought not to possess the power of selecting the fifteen jurors who are to try the prisoner, as this power ‘thwarts and counteracts the very object of law, in establishing trial by jury, which is to controul, check, and diminish the influence of the court.’

In the essay on the chief promoters of revolutions, Mr. Burke is justly censured for the manner in which he speaks of legislating lawyers.

‘ A celebrated writer against the French constitution ascribes the multitude of faults which he pretends to find in it, to a number of lawyers having been elected members of the assembly which composed it; his opinion forsooth being, that lawyers everywhere, and especially in France, are incapable of any great exertion beyond the line of their profession, and particularly disqualified from arranging the constitution of a state.

‘ A rash, groundless, and injurious proposition, repugnant both

to reason and experience. It is obvious, that the profession of the law requires a more than ordinary education, and no small share of acuteness, judgment, and penetration; qualities highly proper for political researches; and that the practice of it must, frequently, lead those who follow it to meditate on the government of their country, to perceive its defects, and to investigate the remedies. This must have been peculiarly the case in France, from the nature of some of the courts there, which had long been in the practice of opposing, and, in some degree, controlling the arbitrary mandates of regal power. Many years ago, frequent and vigorous were the struggles of the French parliaments against oppressive edicts of the king; and spirited and eloquent were the remonstrances which they spoke and published against them. It was some of them that made lord Chesterfield perceive the approach of the revolution near forty years before it arrived. What was Montaignieu?—A man of the law.

‘ This writer talks with much contempt of the provincial lawyers in that country. Did he consider what a province in France is? Petion was an advocate of Rennes.

‘ But who were the chief promoters of the American revolution, in which this author has found no fault?—the lawyers; a fact of which he could not be ignorant, from his having been long agent for the colony of New York, and during the period of his seemingly-patriotic opposition to the American war.’ Vol. ii. p. 162.

The same essay gives a fair account of that literary conspiracy which has been so loudly denounced by the worthy successors of Titus Oates.

‘ But there was another class of men that contributed fully as much to the revolution—men of no profession, no fortune, but of first-rate talents, and superior soaring genius. France, for half a century past, has possessed more men of that description than all the rest of Europe; owing, perhaps, to all ranks in the army and navy being appropriated to nobility, and to the offices in the law being venal. Thus excluded, they naturally became authors, both for subsistence and honour, and on political subjects, these being the most interesting, both to themselves and to the public. They considered themselves, and they in reality did form, a sort of body, *le parti qui enseigne*, the teaching or instructing party, as they expressed it. They devoted themselves entirely to the composition of books, calculated to rouse their countrymen to liberty; and encouraged, by the most pathetic exhortations, not only one another, but such men every where, to similar labours. “ O men of genius! (exclaims one of them,) of whatever country you may be, behold your lot,—misfortune, persecution, injustice, the contempt of the court, the indifference of the people, the calumny of those who are or think themselves your rivals, indigence, exile, and perhaps even an obscure death at the distance of five hundred leagues

from your country! Behold what I announce to you; but on that account must you renounce the instruction of men? undoubtedly not: and were you desirous of doing so, is it in your power to subdue your genius, and resist its rapid and terrible impulse? Are you not formed to think, as the sun is to shine? Have you not, like him, your energy? Obey then the law which guides you, and beware of deeming yourselves unfortunate."

'The argument, however, does not seem to conclude that a man of genius should expose himself to all those evils in his lifetime; rather that he should commit them to writing, in order to be published after his death. Helvetius's book on Education was intentionally posthumous, he having been cruelly and unjustly persecuted during his life, for his *Traité de l'Esprit*. In truth, he who follows the last method has most merit; for he can have no other motive than good will towards mankind, the other may an inferior.

'Duclos, in his *Secret Memoirs of Louis XIV.* says, "No persecution, much indifference and neglect, is the death of all sects. Truth itself, constantly despised but not persecuted, will have but few partisans."

'The last proposition, I apprehend, is erroneous. Truth may be long despised and may long have but few supporters; but in time it will prevail. I have seen several instances of this in my own time, and history affords a multitude.

'De la Harpe (iv. 8.) has, in my judgment, with much more reason maintained as to truth, that "she meditates in secret the happiness of mankind; she throws continually into the earth useful seeds, which, though often trodden under foot by the present generation, are, nevertheless, not choaked, but ripen obscurely for futurity. The souls of men, roused and agitated by her, have tried all their force, and stretched all their springs. The common object of all is the human race. Let us be bold enough to believe, that their efforts shall not be absolutely barren, and let us not despair of mankind.'" Vol. ii. p. 164.

On parliamentary and borough reform we meet with some just observations. The defect in our representation, it is remarked, 'seems to lie in the command which a few have obtained of the election of a very great number of the members of the house of * commons.'

'That command puts it in the power of a few to thwart the measures of government, which must either yield to, or gain a majority of them: it cannot but chuse the latter alternative; and the consequence is, to bestow on the few an influence which converts them into a sort of oligarchy. This is productive of many evils, particularly of an opposition, not from conviction (which must be always highly useful), but of one from ambition or interest, which

* We have seldom seen such a string of genitive cases.

has been frequently hurtful; and of a distribution of offices, places, and pensions, different from what would be made but for that influence, and probably not so just to individuals or advantageous to the public.

‘ Besides, the constitution is not in fact what it pretends to be in theory. Now deception, when perceived, must excite general indignation; unless itself, or something as bad, has introduced a general apathy or selfishness.’ Vol. ii. p. 169.

The borough reform, he says, should be extended

‘ to an abolition of all corporations, for the reasons assigned by Mr. Smith in his *Wealth of Nations*, and many other authors, who, I believe, have convinced all mankind, except the members of these corporations, of the justice and expediency of the alteration.

‘ In a late litigation before me, between the master taylor of Edinburgh and their journeymen, the latter declared, that they could afford, and were ready to make all the different articles of men’s apparel, some a fourth, some a third, and some a half cheaper than the rate at which their masters charged: and they produced a printed paper and table, from which it appeared, that they had made the same offer in a similar law-suit before the court of session twenty years ago. Thus the country is heavily taxed to maintain an aristocracy of taylor. The case is the same with the other corporations; but the borough reformers have several times declared, and in some printed papers lately, that such abolition was no part of their plan.’ Vol. ii. p. 172.

The author’s opinions respecting the lawfulness of eating animal flesh, seem to have been adopted without sufficient consideration.—Upon the whole, the volumes have afforded us much amusement; but we think that Mr. Mac-Laurin’s reputation would not have been injured if the poetical part had been suppressed.

An Account of the most approved Mode of draining Land; according to the System practised by Mr. Joseph Elkington, late of Princethorpe, in the County of Warwick: with an Appendix, containing Hints for the farther Improvement of Bogs and other marshy Ground, after draining; together with Observations on hollow and surface Draining in general. The whole illustrated by Explanatory Engravings. Drawn up for Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement, by John Johnstone, Land-Surveyor. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

THE expense of draining wet boggy soils has often exceeded their value; and many spots have been left in a state of nature, from an apprehension of the heavy charges of the at-

tempt. This object, however, is at present more easily attainable, since Mr. Elkington's mode has been more generally adopted; a mode first discovered by accident, but matured by diligence, sagacity, and experience. This gentleman was draining a wet field in the usual manner; and, finding that his trench did not reach the subjacent water, he struck an iron bar into the bottom, and forced it into the ground about four feet. When he had withdrawn the bar, the whole was soon filled with water, and overflowed. This, in a reflecting mind, branched into all its varied consequences. It is obvious, that wetness of ground must proceed from two causes, either from the rain not passing through a retentive soil above, or from the springs not penetrating the substratum. Mr. Elkington's practice is applicable only to the latter circumstance. He advises persons to tap the springs; that is, to bore into them in the most convenient way for the passage of the water, or occasionally bore through the retentive substratum, to let the water pass into the more porous strata below it. The plan appears simple; but it requires no little skill to discover the situation of the springs, and to find the best method of discharging the water. Mr. Elkington has succeeded in both points. The former is effected by a careful examination of the level of the springs around, and the latter by that happy discernment, which is equally the result of sagacity and experience.

‘ In regard to the use of the auger, it is said, that in attempting to discover mines by means of an auger, springs have been tapped, and the adjacent wet ground thereby drained, either by letting the water down, or giving it vent to the surface. The auger has also been made use of in bringing water into wells, by boring in the bottom of them, to save the expence of digging, especially in Italy, where it is probable that the practice is very ancient. But, that it has been used in draining land before Mr. Elkington made that discovery, no one has ventured to assert.

‘ In Dr. Nugent's *Travels through Germany*, printed anno 1768, there is an account of a mode of draining land, on principles in some respects of a similar nature, not indeed by the use of the auger, but by making pits. And, in a publication by Dr. James Anderson, entitled “*Essays on Agriculture and Rural Affairs*,” printed anno 1775, after describing a mode of tapping the doctor had adopted, by sinking small pits, he adds, “ I have often imagined that the expence of digging these pits might be saved, by boring a hole through this solid stratum of clay, with a wimble made on purpose; but, as I have never experienced this, I cannot say whether it would answer the desired end exactly.”

‘ Mr. Elkington, however, made use of the auger prior to the date of these publications, or to any hint he could possibly derive from any publication in the English language, though it is probable

that, in so far as regarded tapping of springs for wells, the use of the auger was well known in some parts of Italy. Buffon states, "that, in the city of Modena, and four miles round, whatever part is dug, when we reach the depth of sixty-three feet, and bore five feet deeper with an auger, the water springs out with such force, that the well is filled in a very short space of time. This water flows continually, and neither diminishes nor increases by the rain or drought." Mentioning the different strata that are met with to this depth, he adds, "These successive beds of fenny or marshy earth and chalk, are always found in the same order wherever we dig; and very often the auger meets with large trunks of trees, which it bores through, but which give great trouble to the workmen; bones, coals, flint, and pieces of iron, are also found." P. 9.

To follow this plan in all its varieties, as applicable to bogs, fens, &c. in different situations, is not the object of a literary journal. For this, we must refer to the volume, where the whole is judiciously detailed. The rent of the ground for one year will usually repay the expense of the method employed by Mr. Elkington. It is soon covered with a fine herbage; and, by lying so long under water, it is enabled to bear successive crops without requiring any manure. The best method of managing land, thus reclaimed, is explained at length.

On the whole, it appears from the foregoing observations, that this mode of draining bogs, or land injured by subterraneous water, is by far the most effectual of any that has yet been suggested; and that such ground may be made completely dry, by cutting off one spring alone, with which the particular place to be drained may have no apparent communication, but which may be so connected under ground, that from it all the others derive their source; and being therefore the principal cause of the whole, to hit on it seems the chief desideratum of the business. Of this, there are many instances in Mr. Elkington's practice, where, by a few auger-holes hitting on the particular spot where the lowest part of the main spring lay, a considerable extent of ground, with which his drain had seemingly little connection, has been laid dry, to the astonishment of those who have seen it, and furnishing a subject of incredibility to many who have not.

At Odstone hall, in Liecestershire, a very remarkable instance may be seen. A considerable tract of wet marshy ground of very little value, divided in the middle by a small river, he so completely drained, by making a small trench at one side, and by boring in it, that the part of the marsh on the opposite side of the rivulet, which was at a very considerable distance from the drain, became in a short time equally dry with that where the cut was made, has continued so ever since, and from being formerly of little or no value, is now converted into excellent water meadow, producing, without manure, abundant crops of grass.

‘ At Madely near Newcastle in Staffordshire, there is a very considerable bog of some hundred acres, the drainage of which was always deemed impracticable, being of so wet and soft a nature that no cattle could pass over any part of it, till of late, Mr. Elkington having obtained a lease of it for a certain number of years, has, by means of very little cutting and expence, so effectually drained it, that it may now be considered not only one of the most wonderful undertakings of the kind so easily accomplished, but is also, from the other improvements making on it, likely soon to become one of the most productive farms in that part of the country.

‘ At Wooburn in Bedfordshire, he has lately accomplished the drainage of two extensive bogs belonging to his grace the duke of Bedford, in a manner attended with little expence, although they were formerly reckoned irreclaimable.

‘ By drains, too, which he has made, pits and wells at a great distance have been laid dry, and distant springs have abandoned their former course.

‘ Many more instances of remarkable drainages of the same kind, executed by Mr. Elkington in different parts of England, might be mentioned; but, as they are all founded on the principles I have explained, and executed in the same manner, the preceding may suffice as evidences of their success, being facts no less true than astonishing, and which are taken notice of in the agricultural reports of the counties to which they belong, as shall be shown in the sequel.’ P. 38.

The first appendix contains hints for the improvement of bogs after draining. The second treats of hollow and surface draining in general, and is drawn up from communications addressed to the board of agriculture. From a remarkable discovery it appears, that hollow draining was practised, at least in the eastern part of the kingdom, above three hundred years since. In other districts it is a comparatively modern practice. This useful volume is illustrated by fourteen plates.

An Essay on British Cottage Architecture: being an Attempt to perpetuate on Principle, that peculiar Mode of Building, which was originally the Effect of Chance. Supported by fourteen Designs, with their Ichnography, or Plans, laid down to Scale; comprising Dwellings for the Peasant and Farmer, and Retreats for the Gentleman; with various Observations thereon: the whole extending to twenty-one Plates, designed and executed in Aqua-Tinta. By James Malton. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Hookham and Carpenter. 1798.

THE ideal comforts of a cottage gain such an early possession of the mind, that they fix a durable impression; and to

the cottage, as an asylum from pain and disappointment, it is not unusual to retire. Experience alone teaches, that it is often the abode of penury, and that its whitened walls are no defence against anxious care, pining discontent, or disappointed ambition; for it is a just remark, that the traveller, in a cold comfortless night, looks with envy at the poor apartment in which he sees the twinkling of a little candle, while perhaps the inhabitant is suffering almost every misery which human nature can endure, and is eager to escape from that existence which the other envies. The passion for enriching cottages, however, has sometimes other sources. The opulent owner of a splendid mansion may wish to vary the uniformity of his prospect by a picturesque object, or may want to hide an unpleasing scene. The man of taste may prefer an habitation, which the additions of fancy will not injure by the destruction of its uniformity, or which he can at pleasure render more convenient, while he adds to its picturesque appearance. These and other circumstances may have contributed to render this style of building fashionable; for which we own ourselves advocates on the score of convenience and warmth, and also, (we may add) on that of cleanliness; for the ornaments should be in that homely style which will allow frequent washing.

Architects have not correctly ascertained the true cottage style. We shall select our author's opinion.

‘When mention is made of the kind of dwelling called a cottage, I figure in my imagination a small house in the country; of odd, irregular form, with various, harmonious colouring, the effect of weather, time, and accident; the whole environed with smiling verdure, having a contented, chearful, inviting aspect, and door on the latch, ready to receive the gossip neighbour, or weary, exhausted traveller*. There are many indescribable somethings

* ‘It is with pleasure, and I hope it will be so received by my readers, that I here introduce a piece of poetry, the production of a friend, which is so replete with cottage imagery, according to my idea of a cottage, that I have often perused and pondered on it with exceeding delight.

‘At the door of my straw-cover'd cot
The rose and the jessamine blend;
Each tree that o'er shadows the spot
Is dear to my heart as a friend!
Its course, from the first noble donor,
From father to son can we trace;
For ages the seat of fair honour,
Content, independence, and peace.
The trav'ler, at fast falling night,
The smoke of its chimney surveys,
And journeys with bosom more light,
Secure of refreshment and ease;
For fortune permits to extend,
Though she give not superfluous store,
A jug, and a crust, to a friend,
A morsel to gladden the poor.’

that must necessarily combine to give to a dwelling this distinguishing character. A porch at entrance; irregular breaks in the direction of the walls; one part higher than another; various roofing of different materials, thatch particularly, boldly projecting; fronts partly built of walls of brick, partly weather boarded, and partly brick-noggin dashed; casement window lights, are all conducive, and constitute its features. The most happy description of some of the exterior furniture of a cottage, that I remember ever to have met with in any of our poetical authors, is in a poem called the *Landscape*, by a Mr. Knight:

“ Its roof, with reeds and mosses cover'd o'er,
And honey-suckles climbing round the door,
While mantling vines along its walls are spread,
And clust'ring ivy decks the chimney's head!”

Which, in the circumstance of describing its enfolding verdure only, excites in the imagination a picture of the entire effect, with every constituent feature.' P. 5.

In this description, too much seems sacrificed to the picturesque. Should not the covering be uniform, as well as the substances of which the walls are composed? The former should be of thatch both for simplicity and warmth, and the weather-boards confined to the stable or cow-house. The leading features are certainly those of simple rusticity, not of squalid distress stooping to the patch-work of necessity. To be picturesque, the building should, in some points, want uniformity: the breaks should be bold, that the shadows may be broad: but the bow window should appear added to the parlour for convenience, or a small room should in another place project for a similar purpose, for a cooler aspect, or a better prospect.

The following remarks deserve the attention of those who build from the designs of fashionable architects.

‘ Many are the persons whom experience has taught that after building a house, the design when executed has not accorded to expectation, or realized the idea conceived of it from having beheld it on paper. Three causes may be assigned for this frequent disappointment. First, from the unintentional deception of the architect, who, to give a good effect to his drawing, throws bolder shadows from the projecting parts of the intended building, than their actual projectures would cast from the sun's light; and from his giving to the receding parts, too great a disparity of tint, in order, as painters express themselves, to keep such parts back: thus producing an effect which the reality will not assume from the light of nature, the parts being of the same coloured materials. Such practice serves greatly to deceive, when estimating the effect of any intended erection from inspection of the drawings.

‘ A second reason proceeds from the design of each front of the building being given separately in geometrical, and not conjointly, as in perspective delineation. Considered apart, each front may be very pleasing, but extremely incongruous when brought into one focus; with other misconceptions in the appearance of elevated parts, allowance in height not being made for the depth of their recedure. And a third cause arises from the circumstance of the drawings being only miniatures of the thing intended. Reflection is not made that, when the features are expanded to the purposed dimensions, their dissevered parts assume a more homely appearance, and have a very different effect from their resemblance in little. The truth of which observation, even the justly-vain fair one will readily admit, who has ever examined her captivating features in a concave mirror, or magnifying dressing-glass.’ P. 14.

The work includes twenty-one plates, among which are examples of different buildings, from the rustic cottage to the comfortable residence of a man of fortune in this style. The designs merit a considerable degree of commendation; but the introduction does not claim equal praise. The style is too turgid, and not calculated to introduce the simple cottage: it is a splendid portico leading to a hut. In the introduction we also find too much that is not applicable to the subject; and the writer seems to manifest too strong an inclination for the discovery of faults.

Copies of Original Letters from the Army of General Bonaparte in Egypt, intercepted by the Fleet under the Command of Admiral Lord Nelson. Part the Second. With an English Translation. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Sewed. Wright. 1799.

THOSE who eagerly perused the former collection of intercepted letters from the French army in Egypt*, though their curiosity may be supposed to be less strong at present, may yet be gratified and interested by a similar publication. Some of the letters, indeed, which compose the second part, are not of a later date than several of those in the first part; and there are few subsequent to the month of August. But we meet with additional information not unimportant, and with hints and remarks from which useful conclusions may be drawn.

The introduction is calculated to please the palates of those who are fond of the poignancy of sarcasm and abuse; and readers of that description are, we apprehend, too numerous.

Shechy, captain-adjutant to the staff of the commander in

* See the 80th page of our present volume.

chief, is the writer of the two first epistles. In one of these, we observe some curious particulars respecting the Bedouin Arabs. A part of the account of those wandering barbarians we will transcribe.

‘ The Bedouin Arabs constantly rise at a very early hour, drop on their knees, and kiss the ground twice, with their eyes turned towards the heavens. At sunrise, and at the first appearance of the moon, they repeat the same ceremony three times, directing their face towards that planet. They are commanded by chiefs, whom they respect; they salute them whenever they approach or pass them, pay the greatest attention to every thing they say, and punctually execute all their commands.’ p. 5.

‘ They visit frequently, and live in a state of great familiarity and kindness one with another: but it is observable, that one family never eats with another. They exchange one kind of merchandize, or one object of general utility for another, without the intervention of specie, of which they have no need. Every thing that is taken belongs to the taker: nay, a man may be made prisoner, and even sold by him who made him so, without any other person’s pretending to interfere. Their general practice is not to put any man to death, but only to rob him; unless he should be rash enough to make resistance.

‘ Their manner of living is very hard. They feed on a species of bread extremely black, and baked on the dung of their camels. Their water, kept for a long while in bottles made of goats’ skin, and constantly exposed to the heat of the sun, is extremely offensive. They dip their bread in a kind of oil of a most disagreeable smell, which they procure in the midst of the sands of the desert.’ p. 6.

In the second letter, Shechy gives an account of the reduction of Alexandria. In the true style of a Frenchman, he exaggerates the dangers and difficulties of the attempt. The translator, however, has gone beyond him in speaking of the losses of the invaders; for he magnifies ‘*beaucoup de monde*’ into a ‘*vast number of men*,’ though the acceptation of *beaucoup* is considerably less strong than that of our word *vast*.

Of the third epistle, which is anonymous, some parts are properly suppressed, as containing impurities of remark, and ‘rank confessions,’ poured by a ‘miserable profligate into the ears of his wretched father.’

The next letter abounds with complaints. Egypt is represented as the abode of wretchedness; and the people are stigmatised as brutes and savages. The miseries experienced by the French in their march to Grand Cairo are said to have been ‘innumerable;’ and such was the disappointment of the army on reaching that city, that a general desire of returning to France seemed to supersede all the views of Egyptian con-

quest.—The writer of this letter, it appears, was not a soldier, but a naturalist: he was soon, however, familiarised to the work of death; and he thus speaks of scenes which he witnessed, and of the conduct of his infatuated countrymen.

‘ You cannot have forgot how much the sight, nay even the idea of a criminal executed, or about to be executed, used to affect me. War is a sovereign remedy for this weakness. I have seen the dead and the dying, scattered heads and limbs, and my heart failed me no longer; here is a sufficient proof, then, of the possibility of accustoming one’s self to carnage. I rode through the midst of three thousand slaughtered Mameloucs; Milord trembled under me, while I fixed my eyes on those poor victims of ambition and vanity, and said to myself,—“ We cross the sea, we brave the English fleet, we disembark in a country which never thought of us, we pillage their villages, ruin their inhabitants, and violate their wives; we wantonly run the hazard of dying with hunger and thirst; we are every one of us on the point of being assassinated; and all this for what? in truth, we have not yet discovered!” P. 40.

Captain Gay informs us, that the troops, in their way to Cairo, marched for seventeen days over burning plains, without bread, wine, or brandy; and, for five days, were even destitute of water. He adds, that an infinite number of soldiers perished by hunger and thirst; that many even blew out their brains in despair, and some drowned themselves in the Nile.

Girez boasts of the *moderation* of the invaders in their treatment of the inhabitants of Alexandria; but his ideas of moderation are inconsistent with humanity.—In a postscript, he adverts to the expedition of the English against Ostend; and, after a false statement of their losses, he says with a sneer,

‘ These islanders ought to be well beaten: they should have staid in their wooden houses. These animals descend, I think, in a right line from Moses, who taught them to use the sea. They ought to confine themselves constantly to it, for, the instant they get on land, they prove themselves to be a very stupid race.’ P. 69.

Julien and Le Père communicate some particulars of the engagement in the bay of Aboukir. Admiral Bruceys is blamed by the latter for having contributed to the ruin of his fleet by not following the advice of Buonaparte, for securing it with the transports in the harbour of Alexandria.

The observations of adjutant-general Lacuée with regard to Egypt are worthy of notice; and his strictures on the French character are just.

‘ Egypt has not the slightest resemblance to what has been said of it by our writers. Its soil, indeed, is fruitful, but there is little of it. Nature asks only to produce; but the land is bare,

and almost uncultivated. The natives, degraded by slavery, are relapsed into the savage state, retaining nothing of their former civilisation but superstition and religious intolerance. I have found them resembling, in every circumstance, the islanders of the South Sea, described by Cook and Forster.

‘ In a word, this country is nothing at present. It merely offers magnificent recollections of the past, and vast, but distant hopes of the future. It is not worth conquering in its present condition : but if statesmen, above all, if able administrators should undertake the management of it for ten years ;—if for the same space of time we should employ all our care on it, and sacrifice the whole of its revenues, it might become the most valuable colony of Europe, and effect an important change in the commerce of the world !

‘ But where are they,—these able administrators ? we have, indeed, the man here capable of giving the first strong impulse to the taste of Egypt, but not a soul equal to its administration,—whatever may be said to the contrary by the babbling goddesses. — Oh ! how many false reputations were acquired in Italy ! and how many pedestals will now rest without statues ! Besides ; are the French, whose impetuosity was well adapted to the conquest of this country,—are they, I say, endued with sufficient patience to wait for all this ? incessantly eager to pluck the fruit,—will they let it ripen for ten years ? and will they not rather, like the savage of Montesquieu, cut down the tree to have it the sooner ! the first measures which have been taken, give me every reason to fear it.’
P. 132.

In a letter from brigadier Dumas, we have an account of the engagement on the Nile between the French flotilla and some gun-boats.

‘ On the 13th of July, at five in the morning, we perceived the enemy, to the number of ten thousand, all mounted ; marching along the left bank of the Nile, and supported by five gun-boats, which followed their movements. At six the action began. After a contest of four hours, the five gun-boats, which had kept up a terrible fire on our flotilla, boarded us. We were obliged to abandon our vessels, and flee to that part of the bank where the enemy had the fewest troops. About half an hour after, our land forces came up, and drove them back. We then recovered our vessels, and victory declared in our favour !!!’ P. 156.

Letters of instruction from Buonaparte, and epistles from several of his officers, are afterwards given ; and the pamphlet concludes with an address from Gregory, patriarch of Constantinople, to the Greek inhabitants of Corfu, and other islands reduced by the French, conjuring them to concur with the English, Russians, and Turks, in the infliction of due chastisement on those disturbers of social order,

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C S.

Consequences of the French Invasion. By Sir John Dalrymple. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1798.

SIR John Dalrymple tells us that William the Third excited just indignation against the detestable tyrant Louis the XIVth by engravings of the sufferings of the protestants on the revocation of the edict of Nantes ; and, in imitation of that scheme, he has produced a set of most ridiculous caricatures of the scenes likely to take place on a French invasion. It is sufficient to say that, in one of them, the commons are represented as being hand-cuffed and prepared for Botany-bay ; and that Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas are chained by the leg and neck with an iron chain, having also their heads closely shaven. Sir John should have recollected that king William presented to Europe engravings of scenes which had actually taken place. By overcharging his delineations, the baronet excites less indignation against the French than pity at the wild ravings of a distempered imagination. Ireland and La Vendée might afford him sufficient subjects for a more useful mode of instruction.

French Aggression, proved from Mr. Erskine's "View of the Causes of the War ;" with Reflections on the original Character of the French Revolution, and on the supposed Durability of the French Republic. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Wright.

In this work Mr. Erskine is, in the author's opinion, completely foiled. As every one who doubts that point will be anathematised as a democrat and a Jacobin, we will preserve a prudent silence on the great subject in dispute between these writers, remarking only, that, if Mr. Erskine should be found guilty in the republic of letters, we will act the part of judges, and condemn him either to read over thrice the present publication, or to follow the prescription of the Roman lawyer :

Tris Tiberim transnanto quibus somno est opus alto.

The Substance of a Speech made by Lord Auckland, on Monday the second Day of May, 1796, on the Occasion of a Motion made by the Marquis of Lansdown. 8vo. 1s. Walter.

This pamphlet we overlooked when it first appeared ; and it would now be scarcely necessary to notice it, if the author's mode of reasoning, by being turned against himself, might not induce persons to form an idea, perhaps too unfavourable, of the present situation of the country. The object of this speech was, by a comparison

of the state of our affairs in 1796 with that in 1783, to show that the country was in the former period, notwithstanding the war, in a very flourishing situation. But this mode of arguing is fallacious. In 1783, the country, though at peace, was in a worse state from the effect of the burthens of the war than at any period during the war; but it was rising into prosperity. In 1796, the country was sinking from a flourishing state, and was likely to sink much lower. If the argument of the pamphlet be just, we are now in a deplorable condition; for, if the three per cent. consolidated stock in 1796 at 66*l.* gave us so great an advantage over the country in 1783, when that fund was at 55*l.* at this moment when the same stock is under 55*l.* we have the prospect of greater distress than was brought upon the country by the American war. But this is not the true mode of argument either for a politician or a financier. Many other circumstances ought to be taken into consideration; and it is not prudent, for a momentary advantage, to give an adversary an opportunity of future triumph.

PROPOSED UNION BETWEEN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

*Speech of the Right Honourable William Pitt, in the House of Commons, Thursday, January 31, 1799, on offering to the House the Resolutions which he proposed as the Basis of an Union between Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 1*s.* 6*d.* Wright. 1799.*

In examining the question of an union between the British and Hibernian realms, the celebrated speech of Mr. Pitt demands our particular attention. It was delivered after the rejection of the proposal of union by the Irish house of commons. The minister expresses his regret and disappointment at the treatment which the royal message had received in Ireland, though he admits the full right of the legislature of that kingdom to exercise its judgment in the adoption or rejection of the measure. The reasons adduced by him for persisting in his plan are two-fold; first, the vindication of the ministry for having introduced the scheme; secondly, the hope of a more favourable reception of it by the Irish legislature, when the question shall have been fully stated. After a sufficient explanation of these reasons, he proceeds to state 'the general grounds on which the question rests, and the general arguments by which it is recommended.' The grounds are a more firm confederacy and a perpetual connection between the countries. The necessity of such a connection is evident from the unwearied attempts of our enemies to destroy all hopes of it, and to take advantage of those evils which require an immediate remedy. These evils could not be remedied by what is called the final adjustment in 1782; and the imperfection of that adjustment is proved by the speeches of those persons who supported that adjustment, and who are now the strenuous opposers of the present measure. A great evil arises from commercial jealousies, which are to be remedied (says Mr. Pitt) by 'two means only; either by some compact entered into by the

legislatures of the two countries respecting the mode of forming their commercial regulations, or else by blending the two legislatures together; these are the only two means. I defy the wit of man to point out a third.'

Here the necessity of blending the legislatures is by no means proved; for, if such jealousies can be settled between totally independent and sometimes inimical nations by treaties of commerce, there can be little difficulty in mutual accommodation when the chief agents in the cabinets of the two kingdoms act under the authority of the same sovereign.

We proceed to the consideration of a probable evil which may arise from two jarring legislatures; and the affair of the regency is brought forward as a proof that great inconvenience may follow from similar disagreements. But it may be urged that this is not a fair instance; for the legislatures of both kingdoms were, in a very extraordinary manner, deprived of the sovereign who connected them, and were acting in a situation which cannot again occur, as the regent of Great Britain is to be also the regent of Ireland. There is more solid ground for apprehension of evil from two distinct legislatures, in the questions of peace and war, of alliances and confederacies.

The circumstances which call for the measure are said to be, first, the arduous conflict of 'liberty against despotism—of property against plunder and rapine—of religion and order against impiety and anarchy'—a contest which requires the 'firm consolidation of every part of the empire;' and, secondly, the increase of commercial resources for the prosecution of this contest. The defects of Ireland are, want of industry and of capital, and also the want of religious harmony. The two former will be removed by an infusion of British industry and the introduction of British capital. On the last point it is observed that

'two propositions are indisputable: first, when the conduct of the catholics shall be such as to make it safe for the government to admit them to the participation of the privileges granted to those of the established religion, and when the temper of the times shall be favourable to such a measure;—when these events take place, it is obvious that such a question may be agitated in an united, imperial parliament, with much greater safety, than it could be in a separate legislature. In the second place, I think it certain that, even for whatever period it may be thought necessary, after the union, to withhold from the catholics the enjoyment of those advantages, many of the objections which at present arise out of their situation would be removed, if the protestant legislature were no longer separate and local, but general and imperial; and the catholics themselves would at once feel a mitigation of the most goading and irritating of their present causes of complaint.' P. 39.

The objections to the measure are afterwards examined. The first is, the incompetency of the Irish parliament to a discussion of the question; and here, instead of solid argument, we meet will nothing but assertion.

‘No man, who maintains the parliament of Ireland to be co-equal with our own, can deny its competency on this question, unless he meant to go the length of denying, at the same moment, the whole of the authority of the parliament of Great Britain—to shake every principle of legislation—and to maintain, that all the acts passed, and every thing done by parliament, or sanctioned by its authority, however sacred, however beneficial, is neither more nor less than an act of usurpation.’ p. 56.

The instance of the union with Scotland is adduced as a proof of competency : but those who deny the competency of the Irish will doubtless assert the incompetency of the Scotch legislature to annihilate itself. The success of a measure is no proof of its rectitude.

The question of competency is made also to stand or fall with the ‘false and dangerous mockery of the sovereignty of the people ;’ but, though the speaker uses this strong language, it is remarkable that, in his own explanation of the point, he admits the popular claim of sovereignty to the full extent maintained by a majority of the advocates for that opinion. In all governments, he observes, there must be some place where a supreme authority resides ; and, ‘in all these governments, indeed alike, that power may by possibility be abused, but whether the abuse is such as to justify and call for the interference of the people collectively, or, more properly speaking, of any portion of it, must always be an extreme case and a question of the greatest and most perilous responsibility, not in law only, but in conscience and in duty, to all those who either act upon it themselves, or persuade others to do so.’

In these words Mr. Pitt allows that power may be abused, and that it may be abused in so enormous a degree as to make resistance to the government a point of law, conscience, and duty. We agree with him, that this question should be considered as an extreme case, and of the greatest and most perilous responsibility ; but surely it would have been better to leave the question in abeyance, without giving to the jacobins an opportunity of asserting that there might be a case in which the minister of Great Britain would unite with them in what they deem the sacred duty of insurrection.

The next point, the independence of Ireland, is treated with greater justice and dignity. Every idea of subjecting Ireland to a foreign yoke is disclaimed. The instance of Scotland is properly mentioned in refutation of the idea of dependence ; and, after some just observations on the mode of taxation to be settled hereafter for the two countries, the union is deferred to a future day, ‘when the effect of reason and discussion may reconcile the minds of men, in that kingdom, to a measure which I am sure will be found as necessary for their peace and happiness, as it will be conducive to the general security and advantage of the British empire.’

Having exceeded our limits in this account of the speech of

the minister, we shall briefly remark, that the chief cause of its failure in a political view, is the want of a steady assurance to the people of Ireland, of the removal of those grievances or evils under which they are supposed to labour. He touches upon the emancipation of the catholics; but it is a point of mere conjecture, whether the imperial parliament will relieve them; and the reform of parliament is itself left untouched. The great point is to what interests the new imperial legislature would be the most favourable—those of monarchy, aristocracy, or democracy. If it should give strength to the executive government, is it not to be apprehended that it might overthrow the balance requisite in our mixed constitution? To an independent nation an increase of wealth will always be of less consequence than the improvement of its constitution. Great as the advantages are, which the speech proposes to the Irish nation, they may be over-balanced by the removal of its legislature to a distant capital, if the new parliament should be so constituted that the majority of its members might be under an influence independent of that of their constituents.

As a specimen of British eloquence, this speech labours under the disadvantage of not being sufficiently prepared for the closet. The effect on delivery might be very considerable; but the want of the pruning-hook and of the *limæ labor* is visible in every page. We observe a great *copia verborum*; but a greater concentration of sentiment, and more animated and energetic diction, are requisite to place the harangue on a par with those orations of eminent statesmen, which have long been the admiration of the scholar and the historian.

Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, in the House of Commons, Tuesday, Feb. 7, 1799, on the Subject of the Legislative Union with Ireland. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

Mr. Dundas proposes the question whether the political diseases of Ireland are not likely to be removed by an incorporation of the two legislatures; but this question would have been introduced with greater propriety, if it had been shown that these diseases owed their origin to the separate existence of the Hibernian legislature. The chief arguments in favour of the union of the legislatures are taken from the example of Scotland, in which, we think, much knowledge of the subject is displayed. We smiled at the florid picture of the advantages to be derived by the Irish members from their seats in our house of commons. ‘They would then be the advocates not only of Ireland and Great-Britain, but advocates for the rights and liberties of the human race.’ Since the time of Anacharsis Cloots, this boastful language has had little effect; and it is disinterested in the speaker to admit a hundred advocates for the human race, who would, perhaps in the first session, take an active part against himself and his associates.

Substance of the Speech of the Right Honourable Henry Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons, on the 12th February, 1799. In the Committee of the whole House, to whom his Majesty's most gracious Message on the 22d January, relative to Ireland, was referred. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1799.

After a concise but satisfactory view of the past state of Ireland, Mr. Addington confines himself to the consideration of the three plans proposed for its tranquillity: catholic emancipation, the re-enactment of the laws against popery, and the incorporation of the legislatures of the two countries. On the subject of the emancipation, the usual argument of the danger to which the protestant interest may be exposed by a transfer of influence from property to numbers, is enforced by the speaker. The re-enactment of those laws of which the repeal afforded such general satisfaction, would not perhaps tend to allay the present ferments. The incorporation of the legislatures has in its favour the support of eminent statesmen: it removes the danger of discordant determinations, and may be particularly beneficial to Ireland by precluding that species of contest 'which has hitherto subsisted for obtaining political authority and power.' It may also lead to the extension of privileges to the catholics. The objections to the union from the incompetency of the parliament of Ireland to accede to the measure, and from the final adjustment in 1782, are considered as not valid. On the question of competency, the speaker does not appear to us to be so happy as in the other parts of this cool, manly, and dignified discussion; for, though a parliament may regulate, it by no means follows that it can destroy itself. The succession to the crown may be altered; but we question the right of parliament to destroy the crown, or any branch of the legislature. On this principle the estates of France might be justified in erecting themselves into a convention, overturning the monarchy, and forming a new constitution.—The anxiety expressed by the speaker on the introduction of the Irish members into the house, does him honour; and the whole speech, both for manner and matter, deserves a considerable degree of commendation.

The Case of Ireland reconsidered, in Answer to a Pamphlet, entitled Arguments for and against an Union, considered. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1799.

This author argues that, unless the known causes of all our misfortunes and disgraces be removed, no alteration of form or of name will alter the nature of the country, or give lasting peace and security to it; that an union, without such removal, will only unite the open discontents of Ireland to whatever causes of complaint may remain in England; and that it will expose both countries to the machinations of foreign and domestic enemies, and create in Ireland new sources of disturbance, while it drains her of her little remaining strength. He also maintains, by the experience of particu-

lar countries, as well as by argument, that all religious distinctions may be abolished, and the government reconciled to principle, at the same time that every human security may be given to the protestants of Ireland for their ecclesiastical establishment, their properties, and even their preponderance in the state.

In the course of these discussions, he enters into a minute examination of the original pamphlet, ascribed to Mr. Cooke, refuting or corroborating his assertions as they happen to serve his purpose; for some of the positions of that writer may certainly be turned against him. But his chief object is the question concerning the catholics. As he contends for complete emancipation, or what he terms 'the abolition of all religious distinctions,' it is obvious that he has taken a different ground from some of the opponents of the union, and all the favourers of it. The latter only hint that emancipation *may* be granted, when, by sinking the majority of catholics in the majority of *British* protestants, it may be safe to extend their privileges. This author, on the contrary, thinks that, without or before an union, a total repeal of religious distinctions (the most ample security being provided for the protestant establishment), and a distribution of some of the inferior places of profit among the middling classes of the catholics, would greatly contribute to render Ireland happy and flourishing. To us this does not appear consistent: the retention of an establishment is the greatest of all religious distinctions: and we are not certain that the catholics would be content with those *inferior places of profit*, those 'crumbs from the tables' of the protestants, who must still enjoy an envied pre eminence.

RELIGION.

A Sermon delivered at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, on Thursday, Nov. 29, 1798, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By J. Gardiner, D.D. Rector of Brailsford, and Vicar of Shirley, in the County of Derby. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

The preacher's text is taken from Psalm ciii. 1, 2. from which, after recounting a variety of national benefits, he enforces with energy the duties of gratitude and praise. But we cannot approve the fashionable mode, introduced in several thanksgiving sermons which have come before us, of pouring out a torrent of invectives against our enemies, however reprehensible and offensive their conduct has been; and the preacher's poignant reflections on those members of opposition who were desired to give evidence at the late trials at Maidstone, might well have been spared.

Dr. Gardiner speaks feelingly of the recent distractions of the sister kingdom, and the divine interposition in frustrating the designs of our enemies in that quarter; and, from his address to the Irish part of his auditory, it appears that many temporary refugees from that country were collected at Bath.

The style of this sermon is animated; and many of the preacher's reflections are just. The length far exceeds the common run of discourses; but we trust that the energetic language and delivery secured throughout the attention of the auditory.

A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of Heytesbury, in the County of Wilts, on the 29th of November, 1798; a Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. Published by Request. By David Williams, Curate of Heytesbury. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

Mr. Williams indulges himself, and probably pleased his hearers, in descanting on the irreligion and atrocities of the French nation, while he compliments both himself and them on their superior piety, and their being 'untainted by the spurious and vitiated philosophy of the age.' We were better pleased with his religious exhortation, in which he enforces on his hearers the words of his text: 'Sanctify the Lord of Hosts himself; and let him be your fear; and let him be your dread: and he shall be for a sanctuary.'

A Sermon, preached before the honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn, on Thursday, November 29, 1798; being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a general Thanksgiving. By William Jackson, B. D. Student of Christ Church, Oxford, and Preacher to the Society. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.

The preacher first notices our national dangers; then adverts to our seasonable deliverance; and afterwards points out the suitable improvement we ought to make of the divine mercies. We must, however, remark that, in this Christian sermon, the name of Christ is not once mentioned; nor, in the enumeration of divine favours, is any notice taken of the blessings derived from the gospel.—By way of apology for not particularising the late signal naval successes (on which most of the late thanksgiving sermons so much dilate), Mr. Jackson says,

'I may appear, perhaps, too much to have left unnoticed the events themselves, which are the special occasions of the appointment of this day's solemnity. But I have done this at the same time not undesignedly.—The signal interposition of God's providence in our favour so lately experienced cannot want enumeration, whilst every heart and countenance declare, what the people of this land ascribe to the benefits conferred by them.—From the bravery of our countrymen likewise, now so often and so decisively victorious, I can have had no wish to withhold the acknowledgment paid by all; but I have feared only to tarnish the lustre of it by weak and inefficient praise. What an whole kingdom greets with acclamation also, there is little need for the individual to extol with words—and the adversaries with whom we are engaged may say better than ourselves likewise (for now in their turn have they all felt the full force of it) what is the power and strength of British valour combined with British discipline.

‘To the glory of a late exploit especially, and to the fame of that high deed, to which we can scarcely find a parallel, it were idle to think of adding by any recital of it—nations abroad confessing it to have been their mighty deliverance, and all men standing in amazement both at the magnitude and the bravery of it.’
P. 15.

National Blessings considered and improved, in a Sermon, preached on Occasion of the late public Thanksgiving, Nov. 29, 1798. By Alexander Black, Minister of the Associate (Burgher) Congregation, Musleburgh, and published at their Request.—To which is annexed, an Extract from a Sermon, delivered on the same Day, by the Rev. Mr. Hall, Edinburgh. 8vo. Ogle.

Amongst the numerous effusions of religious exultation on account of the signal victory of the Nile, there are some not unworthy of notice from divines in the northern part of the island. The author of this sermon is a seceder from the established church of Scotland; and appears to be a man of good sense, of moderation, and loyalty. His discourse breathes the sentiments of a good man and a patriotic citizen. In enumerating the national blessings by which our land has been distinguished, he specifies the gospel, and liberty of conscience—fruitful seasons and external prosperity—internal peace—our late naval victories—and freedom from the calamities of war within our island. These blessings he wishes to improve as so many motives of gratitude, humility, and repentance. Upon these branches of his subject are to be found some useful observations. He justly inquires,

‘Is it not matter of sincere acknowledgment to God, when diversity of opinion does not alienate the affections of brethren, nor prevent them from uniting for their common interests?’—He adds, ‘these are precisely our circumstances as a nation. A diversity of opinion in matters of less importance does exist. I may venture, however, to affirm, that there is but one sentiment of attachment to our long approved constitution; and one sentiment respecting the necessity of asserting our dearest rights, against enemies of every description. The great body of the people are this day assembled, to express their one sensation of gratitude to that superintending providence, by whose favour we have escaped the dangerous revolutionary shoals upon which not a few of the states of Europe have suffered shipwreck; by whose favour we are still governed by our own laws, and in possession of our own privileges.’

He proceeds to describe, in glowing colours, the calamitous effects which would attend a revolution, or an hostile invasion.

In perusing this sermon, we remarked the severe animadversions of the writer on the practice of lay-preaching, which, it seems, is gaining ground in Scotland. He also takes occasion to remind

his seceding auditors, that, though they were assembled on the day appointed for public thanksgiving, yet it was an act 'in obedience to their own spiritual superiors, without the interposed authority of the state.'—Annexed are some good remarks, in a sermon preached on the same occasion by the Rev. Mr. Hall.

National Liberty and National Reform recommended. A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of St. George, Bloomsbury, on Sunday, February 4, 1798. By Samuel Glaspe, D. D. F. R. S. Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majesty. Published by Request. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons.

Elegance of style, and beauty of sentiment, are not conspicuous in this discourse; but Dr. Glaspe enforces loyalty, liberality, and national reform, in a plain, perspicuous manner.

On the present Crisis of Affairs. A Sermon, preached at Westminster-Abbey, on Election-Sunday, May 13, 1798. By W. Cole, D. D. Chaplain to his Grace the Duke of Marlborough, Prebendary of St. Peter's, Westminster, and late Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.

Dr. Cole takes for his text, — 'when the fullness of the time was come;' but, instead of explaining and applying it in reference to the great event of the incarnation of Christ (an event at which he merely hints, and the discussion of which he professedly waves, as 'being more appropriate to that solemn and joyful season, in which we commemorate the birth of our Saviour and Redeemer'), he says, he shall consider the expression of *the fullness of time*, as denoting several critical and remarkable seasons, applicable also to particular conditions, and interesting concerns of various description and denomination, and shall particularly refer to the present 'momentous crisis of affairs.'

This is a mode of interpreting and applying scripture, against which we cannot but enter our protest. If the meaning of scripture, the scope of prophecy, and the design of the sacred historian, as contained in any text, are all to be overlooked by the preacher, to be laid aside, and to give way to the unsupported fancies of a sportive imagination, or applied to the passing occurrences in the political world, (through whatever true or distorted medium these occurrences may be viewed,) who does not see what a wide door is at once opened to the dangerous heretic, the wild enthusiast, or the ignorant teacher, to obtrude their absurd or unsupported dogmas instead of the genuine sense of the word of God? In many of the sectarian preachers, we justly condemn such a method of spiritualising, and allegorising scripture; and is it more allowable in them than in a learned doctor, and a prebendary of the church? We are rather induced to make this remark, because it is with concern that we have discovered an increasing propensity in our

modern sermonisers, to depart from the obvious meaning of scriptural passages, and, instead of explaining them, to adapt them to the transient occurrences of the day, or the fashionable tide of political sentiment.

The uniform opinion entertained by our good old reformers and orthodox divines, was, that the church of Rome, with its persecuting spirit and superstitious practices, was the Anti-Christ; and that he who filled the papal chair, was the man of sin so emphatically described in scripture. But now, by our modern divines, particularly such as are infuriated with zeal against the French nation and revolution, this sentiment of our reformers is treated as antiquated, and only fit to be exploded. Hence, in the sermon before us, by the man of sin, Dr. Cole affects to discover, that not the Roman pontiff, but the atheistical revolutionising Voltaire, is meant, whom he describes as 'the infamous Antichristian sophist, the man whose memory must be detested and rued by generations yet unborn, that concentrated essence, and very abstract of every thing in its nature diabolical.'... 'This man of sin, in the fullness of his iniquity, in the proud elevation of his profane apotheosis in the antichristian capital, was, like Herod, immediately smitten by the hand of God; and, having suffered the lengthened agonies of unutterable remorse, and frantic rage and fury, rushed into the awful presence of the heavenly judge, whom he had insulted, and the supreme God, whom he had so grossly blasphemed.'—Again, the preacher, when applying the *fullness of time* 'to the events now drawing to the conclusion and catastrophe of the stupendous drama of the day,' remarks, that

'The prophet Daniel speaks thus in his sublime prophetic language; "He shall speak great words against the Most High, and shall wear out the saints of the Most High, and think to change times and laws." This is supposed, and with great appearance of probability, to be descriptive of antichrist; and what can be more antichristian than the present Gallic usurpation? Whatever may be the true interpretation, the words of the prophecy are too remarkable to escape the observation of serious and reflecting minds. The words of the prophet seem to allude to a general apostacy from Christianity to paganism; and I am sure the expression of changing times, by the sudden singular substitution of the new heathen calendar, for the Christian æra, tending to obliterate every circumstance commemorating the famous fullness of time, in which God sent forth his son, seems strongly to favour the interpretation above-mentioned, and to render the prophecy pointedly appropriate to the present momentous crisis, and eventful *πληρωμα*.' P. 11.

Besides the passages already quoted, we find nothing in this discourse which claims particular notice.

An Outline of the Evidences of Revealed Religion. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. 12mo. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

This manual will usefully refresh the memory, with regard to the principal points in dispute between the christian and the infidel. The arguments are clearly stated; and the whole may be said to form a good preparation for ulterior enquiry.

M E D I C I N E, &c.

A Lecture introductory to a Course of Popular Instruction on the Constitution and Management of the Human Body. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

This is a desultory discourse; and the author, omitting 'prodesse,' should have taken for his motto, 'delectare è pluribus unum.'

The Art of prolonging Life. By Christopher William Hufeland, M. D. Translated from the German. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Bell. 1797.

The original of this work passed through our hands* some time ago; and as we felt great satisfaction in perusing it, we are pleased with its appearance in an English garb. The translation is in general faithful; and our English readers will now have an opportunity of forming, from their own observations, a just idea of a work which has been received with great approbation on the continent.

Miscellaneous Observations on the Effects of Oxygen on the Animal and Vegetable Systems; illustrated by Experiments, and interspersed with Chemical, Physiological, Pathological, and Practical Remarks; and an Attempt to prove why some Plants are Evergreen and others Deciduous, in the Climate of Great-Britain and Ireland. Part I. By Clement Archer, Esq. M. R. I. A. &c. 8vo. 3s. Dilly. 1798.

These observations are truly miscellaneous, and are expanded by too many remarks irrelevant or useless. The first remark, on the effects of electricity in bleeding, will admit an easy solution. We observed, on a former occasion, that electricity did not really increase the quantity of fluid discharged, but only its apparent rapidity. In this case, the blood, after two cups had been drawn from the lady, appeared to be thrown out in jets; in reality, it was electrified, and the particles repelled each other. In these electrical operations, hydrogen is formed; and this air gave a black colour to the blood in the third cup.

Mr. Archer explains the permanency of the leaves of some plants from their firmness and their power of respiring oxygen, even in the

* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 520.

dark: they consequently resist the cold of the winter. The circumstance and the explanation, however, require farther examination, especially as each militates against our author's opinion, that the pure air, expired by vegetables, arises from the decomposition of their water, by means of light. From another very indecisive experiment, Mr. Archer endeavours to show, that the irritability of plants arises from their oxygen: he only proves that it is connected with their healthy state.

Several more important experiments relate to the rise of sap in plants, which our author seems to think may occur partially, from the partial application of heat and light to any part of the trunk.

Various points relating to vegetation, to oxygen, the oxygenated marine acid, and bleaching, are superficially discussed. Almost all Mr. Archer's observations on these subjects have been anticipated; and the introduction of the theory of phlogiston, because the author first employed, though he has now relinquished it, extends the work by additions not very pleasing or instructive. The most important remarks are those of Mr. Roe on bleaching.

EDUCATION.

An Elementary Introduction to the Latin Grammar, with practical Exercises, after a new and easy Method, adapted to the Capacities of Young Beginners. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Bound. Booley.

Authors frequently claim the merit of important novelty, when few (if any) traces of it appear in their publications. The present writer, for instance, affirms, that he 'has, in this introduction, pursued a method *entirely* different from any other of the kind.' The chief feature of his plan is, to give the learner a very early idea of syntax and composition, instead of leading him through a tedious course of acquiring words without knowing their real use and construction. The plan is worthy of approbation; but it resembles that which some former grammars have exhibited. Upon the whole, the execution of the work is not contemptible; but we are sorry to see it deformed with so many typographical errors, besides those which are noticed at the end of the volume.

The Elements of the Latin Tongue, with all the Rules in English, for the more ready Improvement of Youth. By the Rev. Robert Armstrong. 8vo. 2s. Griffiths. 1799.

Another Latin grammar now offers itself to our cursory notice. This is professedly the result of an attempt 'to comprise in one all the excellencies' of former works of the kind. We do not think, however, that the compiler has fully succeeded in that undertaking.

POETRY.

The Patrons of Genius: a Satirical Poem. With Anecdotes of their Dependents, Votaries, and Toad-Eaters. Part I, 4to, 2s. 6d. Parsons. 1798.

A more able satirist than the present has not appeared in this

satirical age; and we may add that one more severe never indulged his indignation. He attacks all parties with bitterness and strength. The notes form the largest and best part of the book; but the poetry has more than common merit. We extract the commencement of the piece.

‘ Beat to the ground at life’s meridian stage,
Like fruit mature by equinoctial rage;
O’erwhelm’d with ills, by many a care consum’d,
Misfortune’s child, to disappointment doom’d;
Perplex’d, dejected, doubtful what to do,
I summon’d all my friends:—My friends were two;
One was Petronius, Cassius one by name;—
’Twas but advice I wanted—and they came.
The first, endow’d with ev’ry gentle grace,
Smooth was his speech, and smoother was his face;
Trim his apparel, courtier-like his air—
A wond’rous fav’rite of the young and fair.
Nor yet of worth or honour did he lack;
Strong, tho’ complying, like a supple-jack.

‘ My other friend was hewn from sterner stuff.
Rude, unrefin’d, impracticable, rough,
Beneath a misanthrope’s unseemly crust
He hid a heart courageous, kind, and just:
Thought, war, and travel, and the hand of care,
Before the time had stripp’d his forehead bare;
Had robb’d his eyes of fire, his cheeks of bloom,
And o’er his visage cast a turbid gloom:
Yet still with nerves unbroke, and brow elate,
Firm, proud, and patient, he derided fate.

‘ So the tall oak, by winds impetuous left
With mangled branches, and of leaves bereft,
Amid the tempest lifts its head on high,
And nods defiance at the threat’ning sky.

‘ These friends and I were met in close divan;
And thus the tenor of their counsel ran:—

‘ PETRONIUS.

‘ May heav’n assist my friend!—a heart of steel
Hearing thy story would be forc’d to feel:
Yet bless’d with talents and an active mind,
The road to fortune still my friend shall find;
To smooth that road, implore some patron’s aid—
A courtier’s, trust me, is a thriving trade—
Nor check aspiring hope: but prune thy wing,
And perch thee near the palace of the king:
Thy merit and thy song shall reach his ear;
For thou canst sing what kings may deign to hear:
The best of kings, of patrons is the best:
Go ask of Herschel, and of rare Ben West.

' CASSIUS.

'Vain thy advice. Though sweet the poet sing,
 He never shall find favour with the king.
 Is there not Pye? Whene'er the sun sets out,
 Pye makes an ode, and when he turns about;
 And yet he hardly earns enough to dine.
 One hundred pounds—one butt of Malmsey wine—
 Is all our sacred sov'reign can afford,
 Tho' plump the privy-purse, and rich the royal hoard.
 No: I would rather be condemn'd to grind
 The groaning organ, and to live on wind;
 Or to sing bawdy songs in Spital-square,
 Than try by verse to gain a monarch's ear.
 Herschel and West take better roads to rise,
 King George's quarter-masters in the skies.
 One, by anticipating heav'n's decrees,
 Seats two dead princes on an angel's knees:
 The other waits not till his master die,
 But sticks him up *impromptu* in the sky,
 Above the glorious sun three stories high.' p. 1. }

From the title we are led to expect a second part: in this we only object to the last note. A writer of such talents—indeed any writer—ought to have been ashamed of such indecorum. Let him attack public characters as boldly as he will; but the feelings of a woman,—and by his own assertion an amiable young woman,—it was cowardly, it was wicked, to insult.

Coombe Ellen: a Poem, written in Radnorshire, September 1798.
 By the Rev. W. L. Bowles, A. M. 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

Mr. Bowles displays, in this poem, his usual taste and his usual feeling. We find in it nothing that we are inclined to condemn; and, on an author of such deserved repute, all panegyric is superfluous. It thus opens:

' Call the strange spirit that abides unseen
 In wilds, and wastes, and shaggy solitudes;
 And bid his dim hand lead thee through these scenes
 That burst immense around! by mountains, glens,
 And solitary cataracts, that dash
 Through dark ravins; and trees, whose wreathed roots
 O'er-hang the torrent's channell'd course; and streams,
 That far below, along the narrow vale,
 Upon their rocky way, wind musical.

' Stranger, if nature charm thee, if thou lov'st
 To trace her awful steps, in glade or glen,
 Or under covert of the rocking wood,
 That sways its murmuring and mossy boughs

Above thy head; now, when the wind at times
 Stirs its deep silence round thee, and the shower
 Falls on the sighing foliage: hail her here,
 In these her haunts; and wrapt in musings high,
 Think that thou holdest converse with some power
 Invisible and strange, such as of yore
 Greece, in the shades of piney Mænalus,
 The abode of Pan, or Ida's hoary caves,
 Worshipt; and our old Druids, 'mid the gloom
 Of rocks and woods like these, with mutter'd shell
 Invok'd, and the loud ring of choral harps.

'Hast thou oft mourn'd the chidings of the world,
 The sound of her disquiet, that ascends
 For ever, mocking the high throne of God?
 Hast thou in youth known sorrow? Hast thou droop'd,
 Heart-stricken, over youth and beauty's grave,
 And ever after thought on the sad sound
 The cold earth made, which, cast into the vault,
 Consign'd thy heart's best treasure—"dust to dust?"
 Here lapt into a sweet forgetfulness,
 Hang o'er the wreathed water-fall, and think
 Thou art alone in this dark world and wide.' P. 5.

Julia; or Last Follies. 4to. 3s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.

These are the trifles of one who is capable of better things. Such readers as are fond of amatory poems may find amusement in this little volume. Its contents are all in one strain; and any extract will serve as a sample of the whole.

'To a Lady, who threatened to make the author an April fool.

'Why strive, dear girl, to make a fool
 Of one not wise before;
 Yet having 'scaped from folly's school
 Would fain go there no more.

'Ah, if I must to school again,
 Wilt thou my teacher be?
 I'm sure no lesson will be vain,
 Which thou canst give to me.

'One of thy kind and gentle looks,
 Thy smiles devoid of art,
 Avail beyond all crabbed books,
 To regulate my heart.

'Thou needst not call some fairy elf,
 On any April day,
 To make thy bard forget himself,
 Or wander from his way.

‘ One thing he never can forget,
 Whatever change may be,
 The sacred hour when first he met,
 And fondly gazed on thee.
 ‘ A seed then fell into his breast,
 Thy spirit placed it there;
 Need I, my Julia, tell the rest?
 Thou seest the blossoms here.’ p. 37.

Poems, chiefly in the Scottish Dialect. By Robert Burns. 2 Vols. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, 1798.

To all who can feel and understand poetry, these pleasing productions have long been familiar. A complete edition of all that Burns produced is announced for the benefit of his widow and children. We shall reserve our remarks till its appearance.

The Science of Ethics, a Poem in three Books, by Nason. 8vo. Bacon, Norwich. 1799.

‘ Hail beauteous nature ! wond’rous art ! distinct
 In thee fair science splendid shines, and reigns
 Entire. Can man behold unmov’d thy works,
 The wisdom, order, bounty intermell’d
 Harmonic through the world, and not desires
 Inhale to know from whence they rose ? Could chance
 The plan create ? Or has th’ amazing scheme
 Eternal been ? No. Penetrate, peruse
 The universe, a maker’s seen throughout. The stars
 Resplendent, min’rals, plants, and beasts, attest
 Omniscient hand. Investigate his works ;
 The human frame anatomize ; man’s heart
 Explore, religion hence is born, our bliss,
 The cure of ev’ry mortal pain, sure guide
 To virtue, and eternal life. Prepare
 Astonish’d man to see thy God ! Enthron’d
 Profound in science, lo ! he kind invites
 Thy wrapt regard ! Dread night appriz’d her glass
 Is run, with wisdom obvious slow withdraws
 Her clouds, another hemisphere she fleets
 Away to irrigate with dews. The sky
 Yet dun portends mutation strange. In th’ east
 A world of roses seems to bloom. In fond
 Expectance waits the enthusiast soul, to view
 The greatest work of God, eternal source
 Of everlasting light and life. Swift beams
 In rapid radiance strike the eye. The sun
 Appears ! O glorious sight !’ p. 3.

Such is Nason’s poetry. The dedication affords a curious specimen of his prose.

‘Botta, if thy friend Nafon had thought there could have been another man on earth more virtuous than thyself, this production should have been dedicated to him.’

Only the first book of this poem has yet appeared. Few readers, we believe, will have any inclination to see the second.

D R A M A.

Clavidgo, a Tragedy, in Five Acts, translated from the German of Goethe, Author of the Sorrows of Werter, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1798.

The story of this play is partly founded on fact, being an incident which happened to the celebrated Beaumarchais while he was in Spain. There is something ridiculous in representing a living character upon the stage: Beaumarchais, however, would, we believe, willingly allow himself to be faithfully characterised in the young high-spirited Frenchman of the drama. The story is briefly this. Clavidgo has been betrothed to Maria, but forsakes her, being chiefly influenced on this occasion by the advice of a worldly-minded friend. On hearing this, Beaumarchais her brother hastens to Madrid, with a resolution of revenging the insult offered to his sister. Clavidgo's conduct rather proceeds from weakness than wickedness. He is filled with remorse, and signs a paper, in which he acknowledges himself to be a scoundrel, requesting only that Beaumarchais will not publish it till he has attempted to obtain the forgiveness of Maria. He has an interview with this lady, who pardons him and looks forward to happiness. In consequence of evil counsel, Clavidgo relapses into villany, accuses Beaumarchais of assaulting him, and procures an order for his arrest. This blow destroys Maria; and Clavidgo, returning home at night, sees her funeral.

The former part of the play seems to be feeble, though it abounds with that knowledge of human feelings by which Goethe is distinguished. The conclusion is admirable.

‘*Clavidgo.* Dead! Maria dead! Torches there! her dismal attendants!—It is a trick of enchantment, a night vision, which terrifies me; which holds up to me a picture, in which I may see anticipated the end of all my treacheries. But there is still time—Still!—I tremble—my heart melts with horror! No! no! thou shalt not die—I come, I come!—Vanish, ye spirits of the night, which with your horrible terrors set yourselves in my way—*(He goes up to them).* Vanish!—They remain! Ha! they look round after me! Woe! Woe is me! They are men like myself.—It is true! true!—Canst thou comprehend it? She is dead—It seizes me amid all the horror of midnight—the feeling—that she is dead. There she lies, the flowers at her feet—and thou—O have mercy on me, God in heaven—I have

murdered her! Hide yourselves, ye stars, look not down! You, who have so often beheld the villain, in feelings of the most heart-felt happiness, leave this threshold; through this street float along in golden dreams with music and song, and enrapture his maiden listening at the secret casement and lingering in transport. And now I fill the house with wailing and sorrow—and this scene of my bliss with the funeral-song—Maria! Maria! take me with thee! take me with thee! (*A mournful music utters a few sounds from within.*) They are beginning the way to the grave.—Stop! Stop! Shut not the coffin—Let me see her yet once—(*He runs up to the house*)—Ha! into whose presence am I rushing? Whom to face amid their horrible sorrows? Her friends! Her brother! whose breast is panting with raging grief. (*The music goes a second time.*) She calls me! she calls me! I come!—What anguish is this which overwhelms me! What shuddering withholds me!

SCENE III.

(*The music goes the third time, and continues. The torches move before the door; three others come out to them, who range themselves in order, to inclose the funeral procession, which now comes out of the house. Six bearers carry the bier, upon which lies the coffin, covered. Gilbert and Buenco follow next in deep mourning.*)

Clavidgo. (*Coming forward with majesty*) Halt!

Gilbert. What voice is that?

Clavidgo. Halt! (*The bearers stop.*)

Buenco. Who dares to interrupt the solemn funeral?

Clavidgo. Set it down! (*The bearers set it down.*)

Gilbert. Ha!

Buenco. Wretch! are thy deeds of shame not yet ended? Is thy victim not safe from thee in the coffin?

Clavidgo. No more! make me not frantic. The miserable are dangerous—I must see her—(*He tears off the pall and the lid of the coffin. Maria is seen lying within it, clad in white, her hands clasped before her—Clavidgo steps back, and covers his face.*)

Buenco. Wilt thou awake her, to murder her again?

Clavidgo. Poor mocker!—Maria! (*He falls down before the coffin.*)

SCENE IV.

Beaumarchais comes up the street.

Beaumarchais. Buenco has left me. They say she is dead. I must see her; spite of hell, I must see her. Ha! torches! a funeral! (*He runs hastily up to it, gazes on the coffin, and falls down speechless. They raise him up; he is as if deprived of sense: Gilbert holds him.*)

Clavidgo. (*Who is standing on the other side of the coffin*) Maria! Maria!

Beaumarchais. (*Springing up*) That is his voice. Who calls Maria? At the sound of that voice what burning rage starts into my veins!

Clavidgo. It is I.

Beaumarchais. (*Staring wildly around and grasping his sword. Gilbert holds him.*)

Clavidgo. I fear not thy blazing eyes, nor the point of thy sword. Oh! look here, here, on these closed eyes, these clasped hands.

Beaumarchais. Dost thou shew me that sight? (*He tears himself loose, runs upon Clavidgo, who instantly draws—They fight—Beaumarchais pierces him through the breast.*)

Clavidgo. (*Sinking*) I thank thee, brother—Thou marriest us. (*He falls upon the coffin.*)' p. 87.

This part is worthy of the author of the *Sorrows of Werter*: higher praise it is perhaps impossible to bestow.

Feudal Times; or, the Banquet-Gallery: A Drama, in two Acts.

By George Colman, the younger. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell. 1799.

Mr. Colman's opinion of this drama is expressed in a lively manner. He says in his advertisement,

'He who hopes to increase his reputation, (if he have any already) as a writer, by sketching a mere vehicle for sing-song, and shew,—is a blockhead. He who indites an elaborate criticism, on such a vehicle,—is a blockhead;—or, he is worse:—a malignant fellow, pretending to mistake a dramatist's jerkin, for his best coat, that he may pick a hole in it.

'Be it known to you, *Messieurs!* that this same scribbling in a jerkin,—but, by the way it must not be ragged,—is best suited to some occasions; and not at all disrespectful to the company.—To have aim'd at writing in *full dress*, in the present instance, would have been a waste of wardrobe;—and, as idle and extravagant, as riding on horseback, in Hyde Park, in a bag-wig and sword.' p. 3.

As 'a mere vehicle for sing-song and shew,' the present piece has all the merit that could be expected, and more than is usually found in such compositions. Even the trifles of Mr. Colman discover more genius than the serious labours of most of his dramatic competitors.

Poverty and Wealth. A Comedy, in five Acts. Translated from the Danish of P. A. Heiberg, A. C. By G. H. Wilson, Esq.
8vo. 2s. West. 1799.

We could almost imagine that this comedy was translated with a view of proving that other communities can tolerate as much nonsense as the British nation. We scarcely ever perused a more contemptible play.

NOVELS, &c.

The Libertines: a Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

The author informs us that he first conceived the plan or rather the subject of this novel from reading the accounts of the Spanish and Portuguese inquisitions, those monstrous alliances of tyranny and superstition which have nearly reached the close of the eighteenth century, without being formally abolished. From some incidents related in those accounts, a fable has been constructed, which strongly interests the mind, and has a powerful tendency to promote an attachment to the milder system of ecclesiastic discipline which has distinguished our church since the reformation. The author seems apprehensive that an analogy may be discovered in different scenes and passages to the romance of the Monk: but the resemblance is not striking; and, in point of entertainment, this novel is equal, while it is far superior, in moral tendency, to that popular work.

A Tale of Rosamund Gray and old Blind Margaret. By Charles Lamb. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

This little tale reminded us strongly of Mackenzie's style; and the imitation, we think, equals the original. The story is perhaps too simple: but it is so related as to invite a frequent perusal; and it abounds with passages which the reader will wish to remember, and which he will be the better for remembering. The genius and feeling with which it is written, will appear in our extract.

'I love to keep old friendships alive and warm within me, because I expect a renewal of them in the World of Spirits.

'I am a wandering and unconnected thing on the earth. I have made no new friendships, that can compensate me for the loss of the old—and the more I know mankind, the more does it become necessary for me to supply their loss by little images, recollections, and circumstances, of past pleasures.

'I am sensible, that I am surrounded by a multitude of very worthy people, plain-hearted souls, sincere, and kind.—But they have hitherto eluded my pursuit, and will continue to bless the little circle of their families and friends, while I must remain a stranger to them.

'Kept at a distance by mankind, I have not ceased to love them—and could I find the cruel persecutor, the malignant instrument of God's judgments on me and mine, I think I would forgive, and try to love him too.

'I have been a quiet sufferer. From the beginning of my calamities it was given to me, not to see the hand of man in them. I perceived a mighty arm, which none but myself could see, extended over me. I gave my heart to the purifier, and my will to the sovereign will of the universe. The irresistible wheels of destiny passed on in their everlasting rotation,—and I suffered myself to be carried along with them, without complaining.

'Allan told me, that for some years past, feeling himself dis-

engaged from every personal tie, but not alienated from human sympathies, it had been his taste, his humour he called it, to spend a great portion of his time in hospitals and lazar houses.

‘He had found a wayward pleasure, he refused to name it a virtue, in attending a description of people, who had long ceased to expect kindness or friendliness from mankind, but were content to accept the reluctant services, which the oftentimes unfeeling instruments and servants of these well-meant institutions deal out to the poor sick people under their care.

‘It is not medicine,—it is not broths and coarse meats, served up at a stated hour with all the hard formalities of a prison,—it is not the scanty dole of a bed to die on—which dying man requires from his species.

‘Looks, attentions, consolations,—in a word, sympathies, are what a man most needs in this awful close of mortal sufferings. A kind look, a smile, a drop of cold water to the parched lip—for these things a man shall bless you in death.’ p. 124.

After this specimen, praise would be superfluous.

Esielle. By M. de Florian, Author of *Numa Pompilius*, &c. &c. with an *Essay upon Pastoral*. Translated from the French, by Mrs. Susanna Cummyng. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Wright. 1798.

This pastoral has long been a favourite on the continent, where it has been ranked with the best modern efforts of the kind. But the writer has deviated so much from the common rules of pastorals, that we know not how to compare his work with the productions of Sannazarius, or of Gesner; and it does not greatly resemble the pastoral drama. It is rather a kind of romance in which the manners, sentiments, and characters, are those of the fabled pastoral days; but, in whatever class it may be ranked, its style is rich and various, and the moral pure; and it cannot fail to afford ample gratification to sentimental readers. The translator has performed her task with more skill than we should have expected from a first attempt.

The Secluded Man; or, the History of Mr. Oliver. By the Rev. Mr. Holder, (*Cantilena Captivitatis*.) 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Sewed. Lane. 1798.

We are sorry to see the name of a clergyman, and, we believe, a philologist, in the title-page of so dull a novel as the present. We do not mean to say that we have not perused worse performances, and such as were likely to produce more injury than merely a waste of time: the latter consequence, however, is sufficient to make us regret that the *Secluded Man* has not remained in a state of seclusion from the public.

Statira, or the Mother. A Novel, by the Author of *Interesting Tales*. 12mo. 3s. Lane. 1798.

This volume contains two novelettes, nearly of the same length, founded on the passion of jealousy. That which is entitled *Statira* is the more interesting and instructive; the other is extravagant and feeble. They seem to have been translated from the German.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

An Oblique View of the Grand Conspiracy against Social Order ; or a candid Inquiry, tending to shew what Part the Analytical, the Monthly, the Critical Reviews, and the New Annual Register, have taken in that Conspiracy. By the Author of a Concise Sketch of the intended Revolution. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 178.

Involved in an accusation of a very atrocious nature, we cannot examine this work without the imputation, if we should pronounce that censure which it seems to us to deserve, of being partial in our own cause. We are confident, however, that such a work as the present can make no impression whatever upon the reflecting part of the community ; and we shall content ourselves with placing before our readers some of the chief grounds on which the writer presumes to think that we are destitute of all love to our country, as well as of all regard to our own interests.

‘ I threw out an intimation at an early part of this inquiry, ‘ that the Critical Review’s affected opposition to Socinian principles might possibly be adopted to give a less suspected and therefore a more extensive influence to its political reasonings ; and in the following extracts may be found some existent grounds for this supposition. “ We congratulate Mr. Simeon on his mode of analysing a sermon, which we doubt not will in due time lead him to sound knowledge. He will by degrees examine more accurately every position ; and he will not, some few years hence, speak so positively and upon such weak grounds on eternal damnation, as he has done in the skeleton of this discourse.” I think this not the language of a Review zealous for the peculiar, the discriminating doctrines of christianity ; and it is rather improbable that so professed an infidel as Pr—stley should be held up in such partial language as the following, by a periodical publication, really inimical to his principles, either political, or religious. “ Every liberal and humane mind, to whatever political party it may incline, will rejoice that the author of this work has found an asylum abroad ; and every christian, of whatever denomination, will be pleased to see that, still zealous for the cause of religion, Dr. Pr—stley resists the attacks of the infidels, on the other side of the Atlantic.” And again, “ The style and manner of Dr. Pr—stley are well known : equally perspicuous, he places his sentiments in the plainest manner before his hearers.” P. 19.

We never knew before, that eternal damnation was a *peculiar* and *discriminating* doctrine of the *gospel*—that is, of the *good tidings* of a saviour to mankind ; and we imagine that our author has never given himself the trouble of reflecting on the eternal damnation which formed a part of the pagan system long before the introduction of christianity. He probably has never heard of those infernal regions where

Sedet æternumque sedebit

Infelix Theseus.

But, even if we had interposed our judgment on the question of eternal damnation, which we have not done in the passage quoted,

would that be a sufficient argument that we are ready to conspire against social order? Can it be said that bishop Newton, and many other ornaments of the church of England, were enemies of all religion and social order because they differed from Mr. Simeon and this writer with regard to the meaning of the word *eternal*? We are, however, happy to find by the concurrent testimony of respectable divines, that our conjecture respecting Mr. Simeon's proficiency in sound judgment is strengthened by subsequent experience. If his preaching was at one time thought to lean too much to that class which is generally termed methodistical, his mode of analysing seems to be every day bringing him nearer to the bounds prescribed by the sobriety of the church of England.

We cannot retract our sentiment, that the liberal of all parties would rejoice in the safety of Dr. Priestley from popular outrage. This implies no approbation of the opinions, either religious or political, which he has adopted; and, indeed, far from being considered as the doctor's advocates, we have received some admonitions, intimating that we did not hold the balance entirely even between him and his antagonists, and that we too much favoured the latter party. To expect absolute perfection from any man or set of men, is ridiculous. We have endeavoured to do our duty, convinced that, whatever may have been our failings, they cannot have arisen from the motives which this writer wishes to insinuate.

In the next passage we approve Dr. Priestley's zeal in the cause of religion; and it is to be observed, that the question is not on the peculiar doctrines of christianity, in which we differ from him, but on the cause of religion against deism and atheism. A true christian, we repeat, will be pleased with every effort to subvert the cause of error. If the pious Moravian should convert the Greenlander from his idolatry, shall we not commend his zeal, though it may not be tempered with all the prudence which in our estimation would render it more beneficial?

Perhaps our readers will be astonished at the waste of so much time on so frivolous a subject. They will not expect us to enter into an examination of Dr. Priestley's style, or to impugn the critical authority of the learned Mr. Cobbett. We have indeed taken more notice of this contemptible publication than it deserves; but it becomes us, in times like the present, to assert our independence, to declare that we will be swayed by no faction whatever, and that, whether we are accused on the one hand as parties in a conspiracy, which, if real, we should detest, or, on the other, as too strenuous advocates for the Scriptures against the Age of Reason and the pretended rights of man, we shall persist, as far as human infirmity will permit, in the same course, unbiassed by affection to particular writers, and weighing with impartiality the arguments which may be adduced in favour of any opinion.

Tales of the Hoy; interspersed with Song, Ode, and Dialogue. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 3s. Richardson.

The quaintness of this writer, as we have so long been accustomed

to it, ceases to produce the effect of wit. His productions, therefore, now necessarily appear to disadvantage; and these tales, we think, may justly be reckoned among his worst pieces. We must object also to the increased indelicacy of Peter's writings; a fault to which he has always been prone, and which loudly calls for reprehension. There is, however, much of his original merit in the *Tales of the Hoy*—witness the dialogue which follows a commonplace ballad upon a sailor's death.

' Captain Noah. Charming, charming! a thousand pities such a fine fellow should be meat for the sharks! Brooke-Watson-legs are good enough for them! Pity! pity! but it ca'n't be helped—a man is no more than a sparrow with God! A strange world this! very bad world indeed in some parts—hogged the moment it was launched—a number of rotten timbers! I think it must have been built by contract—yes! in some private dock or other, sure as fate! But we can't help it—if the ship be leaky, we must keep the pumps agoing! All's one a hundred hence! What business have we to die? Fine fellow Xerxes, when he cried to think that in a few years not a man of all his armies would be alive. Fine thought—pretty thought—natural too! I should like to have shaken a paw with Xerxes, poor fellow—but then I should not have been here, ladies and gemmen, to enjoy your good company! To order! to order!—Master Squibb, tumble up! examine your wallet, and give us something good!

' Squibb. My dear friend, my hearty honest host of the hoy, principal proprietor of the prince of pacquets, upon my soul I have nothing to offer—not a bit of a ballad—not a slice of a song—nor a tittle of a tale, to enliven the evening, and conjure up conviviality.

' Captain Noah. What! not you, Squibb? the prince of paragraph-makers! the nabob of news! the imp of invention! the lion of learning! and the very paper-kite of politics! What, you aground?

' Squibb. Let me perish, my dear friend, if I possess a particle of power; I really, my dear friend, am as stupid as that stupid stock, my hum-drum chum, Barnaby Bufflehead, who never so much as blundered on a bon-mot!

' Captain Noah. Come, come, no palavering me over, with my dear friend, and dear friend; I hate the word, there's so much hypocrisy in the world. Friendship is a silent gentlewoman—makes no parade. The true heart dances no hornpipes on the tongue—a p-x on palaver, say I—so give us something, Mister Modesty, if you please.

' Squibb. Upon my honour, captain Noah.

' Captain Noah. A bumper of salt water for master Squibb!

' Squibb. Captain Noah! Captain Noah!

' Captain Noah. Two bumpers of salt water to master Squibb!

'Squibb. Upon my soul, captain Noah, this is a very serious affair, d-mme!

'Captain Noah. Three bumpers of salt water to master Squibb—and then liey for Coventry!

'Squibb. Well, I'll sing! I'll sing!' P. 51.

A Letter to the Anti-Jacobin Reviewers. By Charles Lloyd, Author of Edmund Oliver, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Arch. 1799.

Mr. Lloyd remonstrates with the Anti-Jacobin Reviewers upon their misrepresentation of the tendency of his Edmund Oliver.

'I should not, gentlemen,' (he says) 'have thus addressed you on my own account. I expect to live down the influence of your imputations, and of imputations tenfold more important than yours; but I have friends whom I esteem and love, and who esteem and love me, that are warmly attached to the constitution, to its church, and its king: they disinterestedly suffer for the misrepresentation contained in your review, and to satisfy their repeated intreaties, I have forced myself to the task of addressing you.' P. 16.

The motive which Mr. Lloyd avows is laudable: but we wish that he had avoided the violence and the jargon of the men whom he is addressing. We observe the same fault in this letter which we censured in his Edmund Oliver—an unjust and intemperate aversion to those whom he calls 'modern democrats.' His own opinions are expressed with eloquence and force in the following scene, extracted (we are informed) from an unpublished manuscript:

'Colvil and Father Le Charier, *an emigrant priest*.

'Le Charier. Said you so, Colvil? You deplore, then, the fate of my wretched country?

'Colvil. As I would the fate of any, where more liberty exists than there is virtue to support it.

'Le Charier. Oh, sir, it is the fashion among many in this island, to affect to envy their neighbours across the sea! No laws, no religion, no public or private confidence!—What must be the state of a nation where the whim, the humour of the moment, and the most extravagant licentiousness of desire, alone stimulate to action?

'Colvil. Le Charier, our mad and modern speculatists would reverse the order of nature; would efface, with a sacrilegious impiety, the character which the Maker of this world has so evidently impressed upon it—the character of a *mysterious imperfection*! As for myself, when I consider the infinity of elements, the contrariety of energies, that are at work in this scene, not made for mortal explanation; I am only surprised at their wonderful adaption and order! Is there an evil not teeming with a benefit? An abortion in nature, not capable of assuming a new and a better form? We accuse men—institutions, as if they were the authors of evil. That very spirit of bitterness, of accusation, proves that the source lies deeper—in our own hearts.

'Le Charier. Since my earliest youth I have been visited with

many calamities—but in none of them could I trace the hand of man; a mightier than he has scourged me!—I have bowed myself down in contentedness; I have learned humility—and amid all my afflictions, my religion has been a sure comforter!

Colvil. Yet your afflictions have not been few or light. Le Charier, I smile at the puny sufferings of my fellow-men! Nothing, however, will be perfect or stable here. Perhaps it is intended that communities and empires should pass through the stages of youth, maturity, and old age, which characterise the life of man! Virtue is not an affair of precept; no system will plant it in the heart!—Trial, difficulty—discipline, over which man has no power, alone can produce it! Hence it will exist in the youth, in the simplicity of a nation just emerging from obscurity, through the salutary process of a long desolation. In its vigour the equipoise between its virtues, its liberty, and wealth, still remain; however its education is ended. Difficulty, and the hope of a somewhat to be gained, those grand delegates of omnipotence, have withdrawn themselves. Contemplate a few generations, the equipoise is gone! The prone desires of human nature must creep in; its wealth and liberties will tyrannise over its virtues; the divine may lament from the unfrequented temple, the legislator may thunder from the senate-house—'twill be in vain!—Better dream of imprisoning the winds! The mandate of destruction is gone forth—the redeeming arm of chastisement has shrouded itself in thick darkness!—that people is doom'd to fall! 'Tis not its kings, its rulers that have precipitated it! It but takes, like other human and mutable things, a new and downward station in the eternal wheel of destiny!—Let us, then, tremble, and keep aloof. These things are registered in the awful secrets of Heaven!

Le Charier. Talk ever thus. I am one spited by the fortunes of this world; yet do I love the world, and my brethren who inhabit it. It soothes me thus to trace an Almighty Power in all things!

Colvil. So it is, my friend. The fortunate alone are they who complain!—Health, happiness, and a somewhat of virtue, form the general experience of man: hence we talk of their opposites, and he who has the fewest of these opposites, talks with the loudest and bitterest tongue! 'Tis a strange exception which he cannot brook!—But enough; you know what has led us to this—'twas your request to be informed of my intention with regard to the poor children under your care.—Le Charier, you understand me not. Knowing that I am wealthy, and perceiving that I devote none of that wealth to my own enjoyment; and moreover, being acquainted with some of my wayward schemes, with regard to the more unfortunate of my brethren; you had imbibed, together with those around you, a suspicion that I had enlisted myself as one of that light, thoughtless, and self-confident crew, who dream that a community without laws is a community without vices—well, still let them dream! Yet heaven grant that they may be interrupted in their course, till their own virtues justify their conclusions.' P. 34.

The subsequent passage is in the Anti-Jacobin Review. 'This Mr. Charles Lloyd we conceive to be one of the twin-bards who unite their impotent efforts to propagate their principles, which are alike marked by folly and wickedness, in a kind of baby language, which they are pleased to call blank verse.' The poems entitled Blank Verse are characterised by an uniform spirit of piety; and in Mr. Lamb's part of the volume there is not a single expression which can be tortured into a political meaning. We wonder that Mr. Lloyd should hope to convince men who, it is evident from this extract, deal in wilful calumny, and condemn what they have not read.

The British Nepos; or Youth's Mirror: being Select Lives of Illustrious Britons, who have been distinguished by their Virtues, Talents, or remarkable Progress in Life, with Incidental and Practical Reflections. Written purposely for the Use of Schools, and carefully adapted to the Situations and Capacities of British Youth. By William Mavor, LL D. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Bound. Law. 1798.

The biography of illustrious men deserves a more distinguished rank than it has hitherto occupied in the system of British education; and we are happy to observe that the plan of Mr. Mavor has been employed on a subject so importantly connected with the impressions of the youthful mind. This publication may, at first view, seem superfluous to those who recollect a work called the British Plutarch; but we think that Mr. Mavor's *Nepos* has some advantages to recommend it to extensive circulation. It is compendious, and includes those prominent characters of British excellence with which it is chiefly desirable for our youth to be acquainted.

The style in which the lives are written may justly be commended; and the author introduces them by a judicious preface.

Christ the Life of his People. A Sermon preached at the Lord's Day Evening Lecture, in Broad Street, near Moorfields, January 14, 1798. By John Martin. 12mo. 6d. Martin. 1798.

There is nothing worthy of particular notice in this discourse, except one sentence, which has given great offence to many of the dissenters:

'I fear too, yea, I believe, were the French to come, and likely to prevail, that some, if not many, both baptists, pædobaptists, and others, would join them.' p. 29.

In consequence of these and some similar expressions, the subscribers to the Broad-street lecture, at a general meeting, adopted the following resolutions:

'Resolved, That it is the opinion of this meeting, that the expressions used upon that occasion, are an ill-founded calumny, and have a tendency to bring the dissenting interest into undeserved disgrace.

'Carried. (with only one dissenting voice.)

'Resolved, That we consider Mr. Martin as no longer a pro-

per person to join with the other ministers in the services of this lecture.

‘Carried. (with only two dissenting voices.)’ P. 10.

We have so frequently expressed our disapprobation of the mention of politics in the pulpit, that, however we may reprobate the severity of the meeting upon this occasion, we cannot justify a preacher who takes up the time of his auditors with such insinuations.

A Letter to the Rev. John Martin; occasioned by his late Publication of a Sermon preached in Broad Street, January 14, 1798. 8vo. 6d. Button.

A dull letter, on a very uninteresting subject—the political opinions of John Martin, delivered from a pulpit in Broad-street!

Remarks on a Letter to the Rev. John Martin; occasioned by his late Publication of a Sermon preached in Broad Street, January 14, 1798. 8vo. 6d. Button. 1798.

The writer in some measure vindicates Mr. Martin’s expressions; but he neither throws any new light upon the subject, nor writes in such a manner as may bring the contending parties of dissenters to a reconciliation. It is to be wished, for the sake of peace and charity, that they would settle the dispute among themselves, without any farther appeal to the nation through the medium of the press.

An Address to the Board of Baptist Ministers. By John Martin. 8vo. 1s. Martin. 1798.

The baptist ministers have a club at the Jamaica coffee-house. Of this society the author was a member; and, in consequence of the expressions quoted in a preceding article, these resolutions were voted:

‘1. That to the best of our knowledge, and belief, the representation Mr. Martin has given of the dissenters, does not apply to any individual, in any of our protestant dissenting churches.

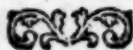
‘Resolved unanimously,

‘2. That Mr. Martin’s representation, not appearing to be founded in fact, is considered by us as highly calumnious,

‘Resolved *nem. con.*

‘One only of the brethren being neuter.’ P. 7.

The club, without doubt, had as good a right to say that no individual dissenter would join the French, as their companion had to express his fears on the contrary side of the question: but we hope that the second resolution may never be brought to the test; and unless an invasion should take place, it is not likely to appear whether Mr. Martin’s representation was founded on a sufficient knowledge of the temper of the society. The truth of the case seems to be, that the preacher was too intemperate in the pulpit, and his brethren out of the pulpit; and we, as indifferent spectators, recommend to both parties, for their serious perusal and meditation, the thirteenth chapter of St. Paul’s First Epistle to the Corinthians.



A P P E N D I X

TO THE

TWENTY-FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Récherches sur la Géographie systématique et positive des Anciens, pour servir à l'Histoire de la Géographie ancienne; par P. F. T. Gosselin, de l'Institut National de France. Paris. 1798.

Inquiries into the systematic and precise Geography of the Ancients, tending to illustrate the History of ancient Geography; by Gosselin, a Member of the National Institute of the French Republic. 2 Vols. 4to. 11. 16s. in Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

M. Gosselin's first work, *Géographie des Grecs analysée*, was calculated to form a new æra in the science, so far as the ancients were acquainted with the globe, or as their descriptions could be applied to our own matured and extensive knowledge. The author traced, with a minute and scientific accuracy, the attainments of the Greeks in that branch of study, and, with persevering diligence, examined their measures, thus bringing the very elements of their computation within the reach of our judgments. Of this work, mentioned with a cold respect by Dr. Robertson, and occasionally quoted with undistinguishing carelessness by other authors, we gave a full account in the year 1791 *, and recommended an English version. It has, however, engaged little of the attention of our geographers; and the same listless apathy, with re-

* See our IId Vol. New Arr. p. 488.

gard to the extent of the ancient geographical knowledge, has continued to prevail. We hope to be more fortunate in exciting attention to the present volumes.

The analysis of the Grecian geography deserved and obtained a prize, as the most satisfactory comparison of the geographical systems of Strabo and Ptolemy—the subject proposed by the academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. The memoirs contained in the volumes before us, and some others which may be soon expected, were destined for the collections of that academy, already rich in philological and other learned disquisitions. The suppression of the society dispersed the members, and interrupted the publication; but the present rulers of the state encouraged M. Gosselin to add his memoirs to the former stock.

The inquiries of this writer have two objects. One is to restore the systems of geography, published at different times by the ancients: five, of which only confused traces remained, have been already re-established; and our author intends to proceed to others, which may in future be discovered. Their elucidation is, he thinks, necessary to explain numerous difficulties which occur in reading the works of the historians and geographers of antiquity; and they will be still more interesting, when it may be in our power to unite them, by ascertaining the various epochs of the history of astronomy. His second object is to follow the ancient navigators and travellers, to ascertain the principal places which they visited, and fix the limits of their discoveries.

In the progress of these memoirs, it is proposed to conduct the reader, with 'the compass in his hand,' along those coasts of Europe, Asia, and Africa, which the ancients frequented. M. Gosselin begins his career from Africa, passes to the southern coasts of Asia, and thence to the interior parts of that continent, to point out the limits of the undisputed knowledge which the Greeks and Romans had of the country, and to show where the Seres, with whom they traded, were situated. He then examines the northern coasts of Europe, and finishes the present publication with a complete periplus of the Mediterranean, pointing out the course of the nations and colonies which have successively peopled its banks or its numerous islands. A few vacancies only will then remain, which will be filled up in the concluding memoirs. A plan so comprehensive, requiring considerable learning, diligent examination, and persevering industry, we should despair of seeing complete, if much had not been done in the volumes before us, and if we had not already a very advantageous specimen of the talents, adapted to this labour, in the analysis already noticed.

The first memoir relates to the system of Hipparchus; and, if it possessed no other merit, it would deserve our attention from the diligent collection of the fragments of this geographer, who first gave a form and consistency to his science by resting it on astronomical observations. M. Gosselin, though he defends Hipparchus against the criticisms of Strabo, is not blind to his errors, which, though not very numerous, are important. The memoir itself is filled with numerical disquisitions and comparisons, which do not render it interesting to the general reader, but which enhance its value to the scientific geographer.

After mentioning the general merits of Hipparchus, in ascertaining the situation of places by the different times of the eclipses of the sun and moon, M. Gosselin states the circumstance in which Pliny and Strabo disagree with regard to his opinions. The latter observes, that Hipparchus like Eratosthenes, admitted the division of the circle into 360 parts (the Indian method), each of which was computed to consist of 700 stadia, so that the circumference of the globe consisted of 252,000 of these stadia. Yet, says Pliny, he afterwards added something less than 25,000 stadia to the former number. This contradiction to the whole system of Hipparchus, who seems to rest in every part of his work on the computation of 700 stadia to a degree, has been long noticed and variously accounted for. M. Gosselin shows the errors of each explanation, and, after a minute investigation, adds the following conclusion.

After so many defective attempts to explain a passage in Pliny, may it not be concluded that the Roman naturalist mistook the point? We may in other respects observe, 1st, That Pliny's compilations of the works of Eratosthenes and Hipparchus were often made without understanding them, as appears by his marking, in emphatical terms, circumstances not surprising, even in his own æra; 2dly, that, as no other ancient author—not even Strabo, who had more deeply studied the works of Hipparchus than Pliny—said any thing of such a quotation, a doubt of its authenticity may reasonably be entertained; 3dly, that the words, “a little less than 25,000 stadia,” show that this was not the language of Hipparchus.

‘ If, after these reflections, it be contended, that Hipparchus made the circumference of the earth, in any circumstances, more than 252,000 stadia, no other explanation can be given than that, after the example of Eratosthenes, he occasionally added as many stadia as were necessary to obtain fractions more manageable in his subdivisions. This idea is supported by a passage in Marcianus Heracleotes, intimating that Era-

erasthenes made the greatest circumference of the earth 259,200 stadia—that is, 720 stadia in a degree, 12 in a minute, and $\frac{1}{2}$ in each second—which would greatly simplify the calculations both in latitude and longitude. If this be true, the text of Pliny must be corrected in this manner; and, however great the change, we should thus obtain the interpretation of a passage otherwise inexplicable.

‘We think, however, that Pliny or his copyists were in an error, and that Hipparchus made no change in the numbers of Eratosthenes. The work, in which it was of most importance to announce and employ his correction, was undoubtedly that in which he published his table of climates, since he there reprehended Eratosthenes in several points; and a reform in the measure of the earth would have been sufficient authority for his criticism. Strabo affirms, on the contrary, that to establish the distances, in the direction of the meridian of Meroc, Hipparchus employed stadia of 700 to a degree.’

The formation of the table of the climates of Hipparchus, and the construction of his chart, were tasks of labour and importance. The geographer had only the imperfect abstract of Strabo, who, prejudiced by his opinion that the globe was not habitable beyond 54° north, neglected to notice those points which Hipparchus had established beyond it. The chart of the globe, according to this geographer’s system, is a valuable acquisition. The minute details and corrections cannot be abridged. One opinion, which had a great influence on his system, may be mentioned. He supposed that the ocean did not form a continued sea, but that isthmi divided it, forming many distinct basins. This idea was derived from Seleucus of Babylon, who, referring probably to the different heights of the tides, remarked, that the ocean did not, in every part, offer the same appearances. This system led him and other ancient geographers to extend the western shores of Africa, indefinitely, into the Atlantic ocean, to meet the Indian coast, or some other unknown country. This doctrine, which was a leading tenet in the school of Alexandria, may have induced the geographers of the middle ages to insert indeterminately, in their charts, islands in the Atlantic under the name of Antillia (the opposite islands), long before the discovery of America.

The next memoir bears the title of *Inquiries into the Geographical Knowledge of the Ancients on the Western Coasts of Africa*. With this view M. Gosselin examines the periplus of Hanno, that of Scylax and Polybius, the tables of Ptolemy, and the different traditions concerning the isles of the Atlantic. All these remains of antiquity ought to be considered to-

gether: unfortunately they have been divided; and those who have examined the periplus of Hanno, have not noticed that of Polybius (mentioned by Pliny), who made the same voyage, and fixed, by itinerary measures, the distances which the Carthaginian general estimated by days' sail. All these are now brought together; and they considerably illustrate each other. Hanno's mode of computation is indeed uncertain; and his daily navigation has been greatly over-rated. By a careful examination of the progress of modern navigators in strange seas, compared with the positive evidence of Scylax, respecting the ancient rate of sailing, M. Goffelin thinks it highly probable, that the common day's sail of the Carthaginian fleet could not far exceed two hundred stadia or from fifteen to twenty geographical miles. This must greatly shorten the reputed extent of the voyage, which M. Goffelin would reduce much within the distance of Cape Bojador.

Our geographer has translated the Periplus, which he has also illustrated with a commentary. Of course he considers it as a genuine fragment of ancient geography, with the exception of the introductory part. The first error, which geographers have committed, is, he thinks, by not attending to the situation of Calpe and Abila, the pillars of Hercules. These are far within the straits; and from them the Mediterranean was always measured. Hanno expressly says, that, having founded the city of Thymiaterion, he reached the promontory of Soloe by a western course. Thymiaterion was therefore on the northern coast of Africa, on the site of old Tangier, and Soloe was Cape Sparte. Almost every ancient geographer has described Soloe as the point whence the coast of Africa trends to the south, supposed by Bougainville to be the modern Cape Bojador.

The position of the island Cerne, as described by Hanno, has occasioned great labour to every commentator, perhaps without much reason; for Hanno does not say that it is opposite to Carthage, but that he judged it, from his sailing, to be so. If the former positions are true, and they are fortified both by reason and authority, M. Goffelin must be right in supposing Cerne to be the little island Fedal: that the distance should appear equal from Carthage to the Pillars, and thence to Cerne, though really unequal, may perhaps be accounted for, from Hanno's sailing, in the first part, along known coasts, and, in the second, in seas with which he was not so well acquainted. The whole of the passage, however, is involved in difficulty. On turning to the original, we find the passage, which relates to the opposition to Carthage, thus expressed: *εἰς αὐτὴν ὁ πλεῖς*—the navigation seemed to be similar.

In the gulf, in which Cerne is placed, Hanno ascended two rivers, or rather, as we think, the same river, in one part expanded into a lake. This is at present the lake of the Negroes, which formerly communicated with the sea. All the lakes and rivers of Africa seem to have contained crocodiles, which diminish in number proportionally with the increase of the human race; and we need not go to the Senegal for these devouring reptiles.

In the twelve days' sail from Cerne, the navigators could not have advanced much above $3^{\circ} 30'$ of latitude. They arrived at a cape, which answers to Cape Ger; and the gulf which they discovered on doubling it, was that of St. Croix. The fires which they there saw were those mentioned by Bruce, of burning grass. The description is so different from that of the fires afterwards observed, which were evidently volcanic, that it is necessary to point out the two kinds.

After doubling another cape, called by them the Western Horn, which appears to be Cape Agalon, they met with a gulf, which contained some low islands; and, during four days' sail, observed the volcanic fires on the coast. The whole of this coast is still observed to be volcanic. A navigation of three days to the south carried them to the Southern Horn, Cape Non; and the Gorillæ, beyond which they did not proceed, were situated on the shores of a gulf just within it.

We have entered more at length into our author's explanation of this ancient narrative, as it proceeds on grounds equally just and scientific; and the whole of this navigation is reduced to the river Non, 2° to the north of Cape Bojador. Other circumstances support this opinion. The winds, on the coast of Africa, are generally to the west; and to double Cape Bojador, even with the assistance of the compass, was so difficult, that, for a great part of the fifteenth century, it baffled the skill and perseverance of the Portuguese navigators. Indeed, if ancient mariners proceeded as far as Hanno is supposed to have extended his voyage, the torrid zone must have been known to be habitable.

The Periplus of Scylax corroborates that of Hanno. Lixus he indeed places before the promontory of Soloe; but he has evidently given this name, by mistake, to another river; and the Lixus of Hanno he calls Xion, an appellation not very different, if the initial Λ be omitted.

The Periplus of Polybius is given in a confused manner by Pliny; but, in different parts, there are sufficient data to fix spots, which serve as standards of comparison; and they strongly support our author's system. Polybius seems not to have proceeded so far as Hanno; for the distances, though at first accurately marked, are afterwards omitted, and 'days'

fail,' in the Carthaginian manner, substituted. Our author's reform of the text is ingenious and highly probable.

The tables of Ptolemy, which are next examined, appear confused, and at first sight strongly militate against M. Gosselin's system. The names are greatly changed, and are extended far to the south of the limits assigned. The tables, however, are copied from Marinus of Tyre: the maps are those of the same author; for, though Ptolemy has corrected many of his charts, those of the western coast of Africa remain the same, and their original date is nearly that of the æra of Polybius. In these charts, a degree of latitude is equal to seven hundred stadia; the calculation is made from the western extremity of the strait, and the measures are estimated by straight lines. After having established these points, M. Gosselin examines the tables; and, of the twenty-four first positions, he accurately traces eighteen. These lead to Cape Non; and the stations, not ascertained, are some trifling intermediate ones, and they are not successive. These, however, do not fill a third of the coast apparently known according to these charts. What is surprising (and we think it is clearly demonstrated in this part of the memoir), the same rivers and promontories are repeated with little change in the names, and less in the order or the distances. The third part, it is plausibly contended, is a copy of the second part.

Two remarkable circumstances contribute to support our opinion. First, Ptolemy assures us, that, from the bottom of the "great gulf of the west," the western Æthiopians occupy a vast unknown tract, extended indefinitely southward and westward, beyond the fifth degree of south latitude. If then the ancients had reached the gulf of Guinea, where could they have found countries farther west than the shores, whose sinuosities they had followed? How could they have said, that the southern limits of Æthiopia were unknown to them, since they must have visited these limits? How could they assert, that western Æthiopia was bounded on the south and west by unknown countries, since, in that direction, they must have seen the Atlantic Ocean?—Secondly, It was the opinion of the school of Alexandria, that Africa could not be doubled by sea. Strabo and other geographers believed that the Atlantic united with the Indian ocean; but Hipparchus was persuaded, that each sea was confined to a peculiar basin; and, though Posidonius attacked this opinion, Ptolemy, by adopting it, continued its influence through two centuries; so that it was deemed impossible to surround Africa.

To continue this opinion so long against such authorities, the navigators, who frequented the western coasts of Africa, must have been unable to prove that, after a certain extent of

coast, it verged to the east: they must have been stopped by the southern point of a cape, which they were unable to double; and seeing the coast towards this cape trend to the west, they must have supposed it impossible that they could in this way arrive to the east of Africa. These different circumstances meet only on the north of Cape Bojador, in the gulf which receives the river Non. From the bottom of this gulf, the shore goes westward, more steadily, than in any other part of the coast. Thence to Cape Blanc, the coast trends rapidly south and south-west, and, from Cape Blanc to Cape Verd, to the south. Had the ancients proceeded so far, their opinion of a western coast would have been found untenable. Had they doubled Cape Verd, and proceeded to Sierra Leone, or any part of Guinea, the direction of the coast, eastward, would have destroyed the systems of Hipparchus and Ptolemy. Since these systems were destroyed only about the year 1432 by the success of Gillianez, is it not natural to conclude, that no known navigator had, before his time, extended his researches beyond Cape Bojador?

These observations are just and striking; and we may observe, in concluding this part of the argument, that, if the foundations of our author's system, viz. the rate of sailing, and the points from which Hanno's departure was taken, be well founded, the rest must indisputably follow. In our opinion they are well established.

Proceeding to the chapter which treats of the 'traditions respecting the islands of the Atlantic,' adjacent to the coasts just examined, we may remark, that, at the extremity of Hanno's expedition, he mentions the Gorillæ, and tells us, that he chiefly saw females, who fought with fury; that he killed three of them, and carried their skins, covered with hair, back to Carthage. These female Gorillæ are supposed to be the Gorgons of antiquity; the island of the Gorillæ, the Gorgades, and the Gorgons, from the authority of Xenophon of Lampascus, quoted by Pliny, are considered as the same. The supposed females were those of the ouran-outang tribe; but they afforded a foundation for a Grecian fable; and the fabulists of Greece, with their usual facility of adopting persons and changing situations, have transferred the Gorgons to the Mediterranean, where they were defeated by Perseus, a hero derived from India. The Gorgons are mentioned by Hesiod; and, though we should not think it *necessary* to believe, that the Gorillæ were Hesiod's Gorgons, perhaps it may be safely admitted. This coincidence leads M. Gosselin to examine the æra of Hanno's periplus; and, after some discussion, he considers Carthage as having been founded about 1235 years before the Christian æra, and the age of Hesiod as being

about 950 before the same epoch. Carthage had therefore flourished nearly three centuries before the time of Hesiod; and this voyage might have easily occurred, and its result been known. We were inclined to place the æra of the voyage later; and it would be no difficult matter to raise objections to either date, and, above all, to the probability of any publication of the incidents of the voyage by a nation so jealous of commercial rivalry as the Phœnicians. But we have not room for such discussions; nor are we satisfied that our positions would be better established than those of M. Gosselin. Even the jealousy of the Carthaginians may have allowed the story of the Gorgons to transpire, while their situation was concealed.

The islands next noticed are the Hesperides or Fortunate Islands. What we once had occasion to remark of Thule, applies to the Hesperides: it was on the north, at the extreme limits of the geographical knowledge of the ancients, and was removed continually as these were extended, till it migrated to Iceland or Spitzbergen—to ‘Nova Zembla or the Lord knows where.’ In the same way, the Fortunate Islands were, in our author’s opinion, some fertile spots in the great desert Oasis, thence removed to a similarly favoured district on the south of the greater Syrtis, then farther to the west, on the banks of the Lixus, till they terminated in real islands of the Atlantic. M. Gosselin thinks that the fable of Atlas and Hesperus was purely geographical, and that the seven daughters of Atlas were the seven Fortunate Islands, formed by the higher pics of this mountain, extending into the sea, and rising above its surface.

The Atlantis of Plato was probably one of these projecting heights of the Atlantic chain, the discovery of which, reaching Plato, gave occasion to his fable, and afforded a scene for his political speculations. He was careful, however, to immerge it in the sea, lest any one might seek for it without success. He seems to have repented of the vast extent which he first assigned to it; for, in the *Critias*, he reduces it to a square, each side of which did not exceed 3000 stadia. Aristotle speaks of the discovery of a fertile island in the Atlantic by the Carthaginians, which was probably the Atlantis, since no other was known in Greece.

Sertorius, according to Pliny, discovered another island of this groupe; and was so captivated by its fertility, as to determine on retiring to it. Twenty years afterwards, Statius Seboſtus undertook the publication of the discoveries of Sertorius and some of his followers; but, in his attempt to combine the different itineraries, he committed many mistakes, which, for 1400 years, contributed to confuse the geography of the western coasts of Africa. These M. Gosselin attempts

to rectify with various success. On the whole, as we now know that no islands exist in the spots described by Sebestus, and that his topographical descriptions are realised by the appearances, &c. of the Canary Islands, we may believe our author's explanation to be just.

Juba of Mauritania was the next adventurer in these seas. This prince was fond of geographical inquiries, and, from his situation, well placed for farther discoveries in the Atlantic. He examined the Fortunate Islands, and another groupe to the east, called Purpurariæ from the murex fishery established there. The Purpurariæ are the most eastern of the Canary islands; the two principal of which are Lancerote and Fortaventure. The farthest island he calls Ombrios, the Pluvialia of Sebestus, the modern Ferro. Junonia and Capraria answer to Palma and Gomera. Teneriffe must be the Nivaria, from its snowy mountain; and Canaria, in spite of errors and accidents, has preserved its name and given it to the whole groupe. The islands placed on the charts of Ptolemy are next examined, and reduced to the same collection; and the memoir is concluded by a table of corresponding names, in ancient and modern authors.

We have dwelt on this work, with a view of drawing the attention of enlightened geographers to M. Goffelin's system. It may, at first sight, appear bold and chimerical; but, when fully examined, it will be appreciated with greater justice. If it should be established, it will greatly influence many parts of ancient history, and many circumstances respecting ancient manners; and, even if it should be found, on the whole, untenable, it will awaken the minds of the learned from the torpor which they seem to have contracted, and diminish that blind admiration of the acquisitions of remote ages, which has long been fondly cherished.

(To be continued.)

Mémoires Historiques de Stéphanie-Louise de Bourbon-Conti, écrits par Elle-même. Paris. 1798.

Historical Memoirs of Stephanie-Louise de Bourbon-Conti, written by Herself. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

AT any other period than the present, the circumstances related in these volumes would have fixed the attention of the public. But the states of Europe have been shaken to their foundation by the effects of a mighty and tremendous revolution; and, amidst the wreck of kingdoms, the wrongs of an individual have been unnoticed, and her cries unheard. Dreadful has been the destiny of the Bourbons; but it is indeed true,

that 'the most unfortunate individual of that unfortunate race is not yet in the grave.' These volumes will declare to the world the injuries sustained by the female to whom we allude; and surely they must excite the indignation and compassion of the reader: but the sufferer, we fear, has little else to expect; her consolation must be, that there is a better world, and *there* must her hope be placed.

The writer of these memoirs was born in 1762. She was the illegitimate child of the late prince of Conti, by a duchess who possessed great beauty, ample riches, and an illustrious name. That name is concealed; but we are told that she was known at court by the appellation of *la belle duchesse*. These circumstances may point out, to those who can remember the French court at that period, a woman whose conduct renders credible the history of Savage's supposed mother. By permission of Louis XV. the child was called countess of Mont-Cair-Zain—an anagram of the names of her parents. It was the intention of the prince of Conti to procure an act of legitimation for this daughter, of whom he was extremely fond; and the king promised to grant it. But the mother warmly opposed this intention, unwilling that the splendid fortunes of the child should excite curiosity, and lead to the discovery of a secret which she had so much interest to conceal. The prince appeared to yield, lest she should utterly cast off her child. The infant was entrusted to the care of a woman who called herself Delorme, who was still young, and had talents for intrigue. This woman affected to be fond of the child before the prince; and, on that account, she frequently experienced his generosity.

The prince obtained permission that his daughter might wear the *cordons bleu*; a favour which, in the preceding reign, had been granted to his mother. A medallion, having the portrait of the prince on one side and that of the duchess on the other, was affixed to the *cordons*. It seems strange that the duchess should have permitted this, particularly as the prince insisted that the child should never be without this mark of distinction.

The affection of the prince for this child knew no bounds; and she of course was delighted when she saw her father. 'He loved (she says) to excite in me the most agreeable surprise by visiting me unexpectedly. If I was in an undress, his impatience would not suffer him to wait while my attendants dressed me: he would take me in his arms and bear me to his carriage, which always stood at some distance from the *hôtel*. I leave you to conceive the surprise of the neighbourhood at this fondness. He even carried it so far as to get out of his carriage to purchase for me whatever excited my desire or even attracted my attention. At our return, he

earnestly desired my nurse never, for a moment, to lose sight of me—recommended an indulgence to the whims of her charge, and forbade all contradiction which might sour my character. His will was punctually followed; and my happiness seemed complete. My mother concurred in augmenting it by the most tender cares. A rivalry in promoting it existed between her and my father: her bounty equaled that of the most liberal of princes. A numerous household, attached to my service, and happy in my prosperity, received from my parents frequent marks of kindness; and they particularly showered their favours upon my nurse: the attachment which she had the address to display towards me had gained, or rather, alas! usurped, the confidence of my father. He gave her the title of tutress of his daughter; this was a kind of superintendence over the assistants in my education. As he was the friend of the fine arts, he could easily draw around him the most celebrated masters of every kind, who would emulously exert themselves in procuring for me the best ornament of childhood, of youth, indeed of every age—agreeable talents and useful knowledge. Jean-Jacques then filled the universe with the celebrity of his name and the *éclat* of his glory: the immortal instructor of the human race, the preceptor of Emilius, he whose enchanting style makes Sophia an object of adoration, was invited by my father to direct the growing reason of his daughter. The prince neglected nothing to obtain from the philosopher this extraordinary favour. It was more easy to determine the friend of mankind to render a service than to receive a benefit; yet it required nothing less than the gratitude and friendship which he bore my father to engage him to charge himself with these truly paternal cares.

‘O my master, never shall I forget thy wise lessons! thou couldst not foresee the dreadful evils which were to descend upon thy unfortunate pupil: thou hadst sown in my young heart the seeds of that sweet philanthropy which renders happy all around it; and I seemed to have been born for the happiness of others. Ah! if I have not been able to put in practice the sublime morality which thy feeling soul inculcated—celestial spirit! if I cannot present myself before thee surrounded with grateful hearts whose happiness was my work, if I cannot offer to thee the homage of happy beings which I promised to offer, if my tears and those of my friends are the only tribute which I can bring to thy memory, O Jean-Jacques, do not accuse thy pupil! do not regret the precious time employed in forming her mind! I should have been worthy of thee in prosperity; I should have realised the dreams of thy sensibility, of thy benevolent philosophy. If heaven had not tried me by the extremes of adversity, I should have been

indebted to thee for finding my own happiness in the welfare of my fellow-creatures; but this I owe to thee, that I possess that strong and intrepid spirit, which, rising above misfortune, has supported itself to this day with courage, and without arraigning providence for those evils which, by their number and nature, would have terrified the most stoical soul. Hadst thou taught me the same firmness for misfortunes not my own, this paper would not so often have been moistened with my tears!

An education directed by Rousseau demands attention; and it is pleasant to linger on this part of his pupil's life; for the remainder can only excite the painful sentiments of fruitless indignation and unavailing pity. 'He not only employed all his care (says our authoress) to develop the moral and intellectual qualities of his pupil—he not only wished to form my understanding and my heart, but particularly employed himself, during the early years of my life, in creating for me a robust temperament, in unfolding my physical strength, in accustoming me to endure without complaint the inclemency of the weather, fatigue, thirst and hunger, to sleep upon the ground, to eat every thing without dislike, and to suffer from no privations. He alone directed whatever regarded my physical and moral education. He never permitted my attendants to serve me with meat: it was only by a kind of condescension that he allowed me to make use of its juices. He was never perfectly satisfied but when he saw me take cold milk for soup, vegetables in their season, and ripe fruits. He had prescribed small muffins, and expressly forbidden that I should have any bread except the coarsest and most baked. But, as he was not present at all my meals, my governess, who loved the little cakes of *la rue Notre-Dame des Victoires*, had secretly formed me to her taste, and assisted me in deceiving the good Jean-Jacques. I was more docile with regard to wine, of which I was never very fond. He ordered that it should be given to me in a very small quantity, once or twice a week at most; and perhaps I should not have made the least use of it, if it had not been in some degree forbidden. Above all, he required that my food should be frequently varied, to prevent me from acquiring a habit of preferring one kind, and contracting a dislike for another.

Having fallen into the most dreadful misery by a chain of unprecedented events, I have had occasion to appreciate the importance of these precautions, so minute and trifling in appearance, that my governess would smile with contempt when they were mentioned. After my indispositions and various sufferings, I should not have existed at present, if my body had not been previously accustomed to content itself with the most

simple food. Every day that passes, I say to myself, it is to the provident care of Jean-Jacques that I am indebted for seeing it; this day is another benefit conferred on me by my illustrious tutor.

To excite emulation, a boy of the same age was chosen for the companion of her sports and studies. This associate, from his dress, was known by the appellation of the Hussar of the little countess of Mont-Cair-Zain. They had the same instructors in logic, mathematics, geography, music, drawing, riding and military exercises; for the little countess was made a soldier, and her father formed a regiment of children in the Conti uniform, to manœuvre with her and the hussar on field-days. The prince made the young volunteers observe the most rigid discipline. At night they slept upon mats placed on the ground: they made their own fires in camp, and prepared their own food: but, in the place where they exercised, there stood a house, the larder of which was more inviting than the camp kitchen; and the soldiers were frequently detected marauding. The hussar and the countess were so expert as to lead on their less adroit companions, and escape detection when their followers were apprehended.

To the pupil of Rousseau, the Greek, Latin, and Italian languages were taught: she adds, that she was even instructed to distinguish the Chinese characters; an assertion which we should disbelieve if it did not appear too absurd to be hazarded were it false. Mathematics also formed a part of her education. Rousseau was admirably patient in demonstrating the problems; but the little countess, in the midst of his demonstration, was thinking of her amusements. He would smile and say, 'We will begin this lesson again some other time, when you may be less absent.' She was then far from thinking that this science would one day be a resource which should preserve her from perishing with want.

But it was in conversation that Rousseau gave his pupil the most useful and impressive lessons; not so much by speaking to her of her faults, as by pointing out the inconvenience and absurdity of them in some example which she had before her eyes, or which he cited as by chance. She stood greatly in awe of the little stories frequently related by him, in which the countess of Mont-Cair-Zain, under another name, always appeared as the principal character. Madame Delorme complained one evening to the prince, that his daughter would have her will in every thing: 'It is in the blood,' replied the prince smiling:—'Say in the sex,' rejoined Jean-Jacques with that good humour which gave greater point to his repartees. The governess never forgave him.

The countess once asked Rousseau whether he had any child-

ren : he burst into tears, and immediately left the room. In praising the free manners of the dauphiness (Marie Antoinette), then 'glittering like the morning star,' the prince particularly extolled her disposition to brave the prejudices and tyranny of etiquette, and to break those golden chains which render the first princes in the world more miserable slaves than the lowest of their subjects. 'These golden chains,' replied Rousseau, 'will no sooner be broken, than all those persons whom they no longer bind to the court, will come to Paris to cabal and conspire, perhaps against the monarch and the monarchy.'

The father, as well as the daughter, sometimes received excellent lessons from Rousseau. The prince told him, that, when Louis XV. had pressed him to renounce his pretensions to the town of Neuchâtel, conformably to the last treaties, he had replied, 'Sire, in my eyes sovereignty is so fine a thing, that, if I were sovereign of my bed, I would never leave it.' Jean-Jacques answered, 'You would not be the first slave who believed himself a sovereign.'

When the countess was eleven years old, her father procured an act of legitimation from the king ; and the day was fixed for her appearance at court. This he communicated to her, strictly enjoining her to keep it secret. Madame Delorme procured from her a disclosure of the secret ; and, before the appointed day, she was inveigled from home and carried into Franche-Comté, the country of her perfidious governess. An official account of the death and burial of his child was transmitted to the prince. The certificate was signed by the curé of the parish, in presence of the brother-in-law of madame Delorme, and the chaplain of the duchess. In 1792, when Stephanie-Louise asserted her birth and claims, the register of the church was examined ; and it did not appear that such interment had been recorded in it.

The mother of this unfortunate child was evidently the first agent in this plot, as the note which invited Stephanie from home was written by her. There is strong reason to suspect the present prince of Conti, then the count de la Marche, of having promoted it. He had offended his father ; and the legitimation of this child was of course dreaded by him. She had often interceded for her brother : Rousseau had taught her so to act, and her heart easily received the lesson. This suspicion is not avowed by the writer ; but it subsists on firm grounds.

The prettexts alleged to Stephanie for her removal were, that she had offended her father by divulging the secret which he had entrusted to her, and that he himself was disgraced and exiled. Madame Delorme made use of all her art to preserve the confidence of her ill-fated pupil, and persuade her to

enter a convent, where, she said, she had orders to place her as her daughter. They were lodged in the house of the sieur B. whom madame Delorme called her relative. The countess strongly objecting to the proposals of her governess, the latter asked, if she would rather marry monsieur B. 'There is no alternative,' she added: 'you must either bear his name or mine; you must either be his wife or my daughter, that you may find a retreat in his house or in a convent. Such are the precise orders that I have received from the court and from your parents; and I shall take care to prevent you from ruining yourself by a refusal of submission.' Stephanie replied, 'Since I have only the choice of gaolers, I prefer any grate in France to the prison of your friend B. I will not hesitate a moment to follow you to any convent to which you chuse to conduct me. You may even call me by your name: my aversion for that man is so strong, that I can endure any thing except his presence; but do not expect that I will ever sign any other name than my own.'

Madame Delorme endeavoured to prevail on the countess to keep her history secret in the convent; and strict orders were given that she should be suffered to write only to the sieur B. But she contracted a friendship with a person who had sufficient penetration to be suspicious of madame Delorme; and she declared to this friend, that she would not quit the convent before she should receive a written order from her father. It might have been fortunate for her if she had persisted in this resolution; for her young friends would probably, by some means, have communicated her situation to the prince: but she was inveigled away by a report that madame Delorme was dying, and forcibly married to the sieur B. She was not yet twelve years of age, and this man, detestable both in mind and body, was advanced in years. A narration of more atrocious wickedness we scarcely ever perused;—and the mother of Stephanie was the instigator! She it was who made it the interest of the execrable Delorme to ruin her pupil. She it was who gave the dowry that induced this man to force her child into a marriage.

The little hussar had been conveyed into Franche-Comté with the countess. He had been threatened unless he should keep silence; but some intimation of the truth had fallen from him; and he was never heard of afterwards. From what he had said, and other suspicious circumstances, such was the opinion of the country, that the conspirators could not venture upon the marriage there. Though Stephanie was under twelve, the pretended certificate of baptism produced at her marriage stated her to be eighteen years of age. As no priest could easily be duped by this pretence, it was necessary to find one who

would become an accomplice. Wickedness is always most readily perpetrated in great cities; and Stephanie was carried to Paris. M. Richard, the brother-in-law of madame Delorme, consented to act as guardian to the young lady. 'The bans,' she says, 'were published in the parish of this guardian, who had been just appointed for the ceremony. This was not enough: it was necessary to conduct me to the altar. All the arts of seduction were too weak to persuade me to go. They were baffled by an invincible repugnance. I heard madame Delorme without power to reply; her arguments, without persuading, staggered and confused me. Sometimes I appeared fluctuating and doubtful; but the approach of the fatal moment, and the horror of joining my hand to that which was destined for me, destroyed all sophisms, and effaced all the impressions of terror and of hope with which I had been for a moment affected. Not being able to subdue my heart, my adversaries stupefied my reason by liquors, of which the effect was the more speedy as I had never used them. The success was too complete: a burning fever manifested itself; but it was not my life, it was my marriage that was of consequence to the conspirators. Notwithstanding my resistance, my tears, a fever that consumed me, and suffocating vomitings, they dragged me in this state to the altar. I know not what passed there: I only recollect, that, at the moment of our appearing there, I said to the sieur B. "Never, never, will I be your wife!" This mockery was acted in the church where Stephanie was said to have been buried; and the priest who married her was the man who had forged the certificate of her interment.

Here, however, the crime ceased. B. had made her his prisoner; but he durst not offer her any personal violence. Rousseau had given a manly courage to his pupil; and the fourteen years which she passed under the tyranny of that villain daily increased her contempt and abhorrence of him. Madame Delorme at last repented; but it was a death-bed repentance, and produced no good effect. After fourteen years of wretchedness and vain exertions to deliver herself, Stephanie compelled her husband to suffer her to depart; and she immediately retired to a convent, the abbess of which was connected with B. She there underwent, for two years, those severities for which the convents afforded too much opportunity. At length, by refusing all food, she intimidated the abbess, and obtained her release. Long before this time, Louis XV. had died; and her father's life had been shortened by the supposed death of his favourite child. She applied to her brother, who had succeeded the defunct prince. The legal proofs which she adduced to identify herself, could not be controverted; but this man treated her with a barbarous in-

difference which ought for ever to be remembered to his infamy. She did not demand to be reinstated in her former rank; she requested only a maintenance. An establishment was on the point of being formed for mademoiselle on her marriage with the duke of Angoulême: 'There will be situations in this household,' so she wrote to her brother, 'which, without derogating from my birth, would not divulge the mystery; one of these places would not be refused to the demand of your highness.' This was the reply: 'Madame, I have received the letter with which you honoured me, and am very sorry that it is not in my power to comply with your request. Be not the less persuaded, I pray you, of the sincerity of all the sentiments with which I have the honour to be, Madame, your very humble and obedient servant, L. F. J. De Bourbon.'

Such was the treatment which Stephanie received from her brother. The duke and duchess of Orleans acknowledged and neglected her; but in monsieur, (the prince who is now styled Louis XVIII.) and in the excellent madame Elizabeth, she found protectors and friends. From the former she received pecuniary presents to enable her to reclaim her paternal rights. A suit was commenced; and the mode by which the prince of Conti thought proper to evade it was by pleading that Stephanie could carry on no suit unauthorised by her husband. She then endeavoured to procure a legal dissolution of the marriage; but the influence of her brother, and perhaps also the prejudices of the time (for it was near the close of 1791) prevailed; and she was declared to have been legally married. She applied to the king on this occasion: his conduct was just and noble; he acknowledged her, and gratified her with a pension. The French monarchy was soon after overthrown; and this unfortunate woman was involved in the ruin of the house of Bourbon.

She survived the dangers of the revolution; but her enemies ceased not to persecute her. Louis XVI. had recommended to her the care of his children; and she would therefore have shared the destiny of Marie-Therèse: but an abandoned woman was suborned to assume her name; and her conduct, being reported to the princesses as that of the real Stephanie, deprived her of this last friend. The woman confessed that she had been well paid for her conduct; but the justification of the injured person was not permitted to reach the princesses.

The spirit of Stephanie was still unbroken. She advanced a claim to a stipend, or to some part of her father's property. But, when the commotion of Fructidor took place, her friends were among the weaker party; and, though a small pension

had been settled on her, she could not obtain the regular payment of it.

'I terminate these memoirs (she says) in the year 1798, the first day of spring, to use the common language; for there is no spring to the unhappy. I conclude them in coming from an audience with the minister Letourneur, not in a transport of extraordinary misanthropy, but in the habitual disposition of an oppressed spirit which has scarcely ever yet, in what concerns it personally, seen any thing but the triumph of wickedness, and the abuse of power oppressing weakness. Will a better futurity, and an authority enlightened by the manifestation of the most incontestable and melancholy truths, command an addition to these memoirs, or must they be the last cries of misery, the last accents of despair? Powerful God, if such be thy will, if this be my testament of death, if the moment for striking the fatal blow be come, the victim is ready and resigned! let her not be tortured by long agonies!'

Authentic testimonials confirm the truth of this narration; and it well deserves the attention of the public.

Annales de Chymie, Vols. XV. XVI. XVII. XVIII.

Annals of Chemistry. (Continued from Vol. XXIV. New Arrangement, p. 505.)

THE first article of the fifteenth volume relates to the 'choice of clays and their use in potteries, either in the construction of furnaces or of crucibles,' by M. Hassenfratz. The chief result of the inquiry is, that only those clays which contain alumine and flint are useful for these purposes; that, for furnaces, the flint must be in a very large proportion, and, for crucibles, the alumine; that, for the latter, the alumine must be previously calcined and powdered, or the broken pots, minutely pounded, substituted for it. If the calcined alumine be employed, the heat must be as great as any to which the crucibles will ever be subjected. The principle on which these directions depend is, that the furnaces are subject only to the action of heat, while crucibles are affected by the heat externally, and by that of various fluxes internally: a large proportion of silex would therefore be injurious to the latter.

From M. Pelletier's observations on the carbonate of potash, and the nature of this neutral, it appears that, in every saturation of the alkali by the carbonic acid, some siliceous earth is always deposited; that the neutral crystallises in rhomboidal prisms, and contains, when perfectly neutralised, 43 parts of carbonic acid, 17 of water, and 48 of pure alkali; and

that, in solution, the neutral produces cold, and, with the slightest heat, some of the acid escapes; but no degree of heat, alone, will separate the whole.

Dr. Blagden's report of the best methods of ascertaining the strength of spirituous liquors, is translated from the *Philosophical Transactions*. M. Andrada's memoir on the diamonds of Brasil, long since noticed in our foreign literary intelligence, is the next article.

Among the extracts from *Crell's Annals*, we find an analysis of an excellent system of mineralogy, by M. Suckow, and of Kœstner's translation of Hellot's work on dyeing, with the notes of M. Hoffmann; an account of a stone resembling the German pechstein, which becomes transparent by fire, and is therefore called by M. Born pyrophanous; an intimation of the mode employed by the Mongol Tartars to collect sugar from milk (which consists in freezing it, when the sugar effloresces, in a white powder, on the top); and a description of M. Gadolin's method of separating the fatty matter from crude nitre, by means of charcoal, instead of alum. M. Schrœder, of Berlin, having melted three parts of acidulated tartrate of pot-ash (cream of tartar) with one of borax, found it, in the dark, of a beautiful sea-green colour. This hue slowly disappeared, but was restored by exposing the mixture to the sun. M. Pickel found that a thermometer, moistened with linseed oil, oil of cloves, oil of canella, Deppel's animal oil, and phosphorus dissolved in oil of canella, when plunged in oxygenated muriatic gas, raised the mercury considerably. The balsam of Peru, the sulphures and alkalis, raised it only two or three degrees; muriat of antimony and nitrat of silver, one degree only; camphor, lime-water, alcohol, vinegar, acids, and metallic solutions, did not affect it. The other observations, from this collection, are either trifling or generally known. The accounts of different chemical works, published in Germany, are not very important, if we except an article relative to the working of mines.

An excellent dissertation on common ink for writing, by M. Ribaucourt, deserves to be translated; but we can only give a sketch of it. According to his experiments, the gall contains an earthy and a neutral salt, each with the peculiar gallic acid. When the sulphate of iron is joined to it, a double decomposition takes place; and the selenite is precipitated of a black colour, which it takes from the iron, in a gross form. This precipitate is copiously deposited on felt, but will not penetrate the fibres of wool or silk: a second precipitate contains the true neutral with the alkali, and a small proportion of selenite, which will impregnate wool and silk; but the fine transparent black colour proceeds from the oxyd of iron, which is partly in the state of Prussian blue. Six ounces of the

gallic earth absorb six ounces of sulphuric acid. In the composition of ink, no ingredient will properly supply the place of the gall-nut. Logwood blackens the precipitate, without increasing its quantity: we imagine that it augments the proportion of Prussian blue. Blue vitriol also increases the black colour; and candied sugar gives some degree of fluidity to the ink, which is thickened by too great a proportion of gum. No ingredient will form a good substitute for the sulphat of iron.

The memoir on the different methods proposed for determining the quality of crude nitre — on the waste which arises from boiling the solution, in consequence of the volatilisation of the salt — and on the changes requisite in the process to prevent the different inconveniences — is elaborate and useful, but cannot well be abridged. It is continued in the sixteenth volume.

Some valuable remarks by M. Westring, on the dyeing qualities of many of the Swedish lichens, are here given from the memoirs of the academy of Stockholm. Thirty-one are particularly noticed; and their management, when they are employed either on wool or on silk, is distinctly described. The colours of these lichens are extracted by a tenth part of unslacked lime, and $\frac{1}{20}$ of crude sal ammoniac: they are, in general, fugitive.

The result of some experiments on agriculture, and reflections on their relation to political œconomy, by the late unfortunate Lavoisier, are added; but they are not interesting to the English agriculturist.

M. Piffi's observations on muriat of barytes, and on the salt which lines the internal surface of the walls of the baths of Vichi, are not sufficiently important or accurate to detain us. The volume concludes with a letter from Van Mons to Fourcroy, containing some chemical intelligence.

In the earlier part of the sixteenth volume is an article which relates to calculi, by M. Fourcroy. The essay is interesting, as it contains whatever was known on the subject before the period of its publication; but the whole is not new, since we have had occasion to follow Dr. Pearson's scientific researches*. M. Fourcroy notices the biliary, hepatic, and intestinal calculi. What relates to the intestinal calculus of a horse is remarkable. The stone analysed consisted of two parts of the phosphat of magnesia, one part of the phosphat of ammoniac, and one part of water, with some slight traces of vegetable and animal matter. The muscular, pancreatic, and pineal calculi, our author has never analysed. Little is known of the pulmonary calculi, but they are supposed by M. Ræring to be

* See our XXIVth Vol. New Arr. p. 34.

the same with the tophaceous, since he found them in an old arthritic. The renal calculus resembles that of the bladder. The renal calculus of a horse contained, in a large proportion, carbonate and phosphate of lime: some renal calculi of a cat contained $\frac{3}{4}$ of carbonate of lime, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of phosphate of lime. Nothing is added to our knowledge of the salivary calculi, or of those of the stomach; and the writer is not aware, that the vegetable concretions are known to be sometimes flint, particularly those in the cavities of the Indian bamboo. Some we may perhaps consider as calcareous: some appear to be of the nature of the wood; those of pears seem, from the present experiments, to be a woody matter confusedly crystallised. The lithic acid, which seems to be peculiar to the human urine, has not been sufficiently examined; nor have the uterine calculi been attentively observed.

G. Berthollet's letter to L. Berthollet on his experiments relative to astringents, and his analysis of quinquina, differing in some respects from that of Fourcroy, are not interesting. M. Gadolin's method of lixiviating and purifying crude salt-petre, by means of charcoal dust, cannot conveniently be abridged. He finds the charcoal powder useful for this purpose, and, in general, confirms M. Löwitz' experiments.

The next article, though trifling, made a deeper impression upon us from adventitious circumstances. M. Lamanon, whose fate we have lately lamented, communicated (before his departure with la Pérouse the navigator) some experiments to the academy of sciences, in which he endeavoured to prove, that quartz was really combustible, since the fragments of two pieces of flint, one of which he struck against the other, fell on white paper, covered with a fuliginous matter, and imprinted a mark on it. This idea he followed with eagerness, and applied it to the theory of the earth, in support of Buffon's system. It did not appear, indeed, that this sooty matter was from the iron accidentally mixed with the quartz, but it seemed to be extraneous, and to consist of the floating bodies in the atmosphere burned during the fall of the heated flint.

Extracts from the eighth and ninth numbers of Crell's *Annals* for 1791, are included in this volume; but few of the articles are interesting: we will briefly notice those which are most so. M. Hacquet has examined, with some care, the Carpathian mountains. They are covered on the tops with Iceland moss; and the substance is a grit, in which the flinty particles are agglutinated by argil, with a slight mixture of iron. These mountains, like all those in which grit predominates, are poor in minerals, but contain a large proportion of muriat of pot-ash, and a variety of mineral waters, some

of which, particularly the hepatic waters, are very salutary. The acidulous waters of Dochna-Sara are said to be injurious. Their odour is pleasant, but they contain a large proportion of azotic gas; their chief salts are the carbonate of soda, and that of lime. We have reason to believe, however, that the analysis was too hasty to be precise.

It is not generally known, that the yellow amber of Königsberg has been lately discovered by digging, though the supply was usually procured on the shores, where it had been thrown by storms. It is raised 200 feet from the sea, where many shafts are sunk, one of which is near 100 feet in depth. The amber does not run in veins, but is found in nodules, in a matrix of charcoal, below which there are strata of sand. In the charcoal there are sometimes little threads of amber. This seems to show that the origin was volcanic, and that the amber was accumulated by sublimation.

M. Wieglib has glanced with his usual rapidity at the invention of gunpowder. He finds, even in his own village, incontestable proofs of its having been used in a military way in 1378; and it was not then considered as a novelty. He thinks, that it may have been invented about the end of the thirteenth century. It was certainly known for some time before it was employed in fire-arms. Perhaps no certain account of its use occurs before 1346 or 1354.

The 'report of the attempts which have been made at Paris, for producing an uniformity of measures and weights,' was early noticed in this journal.—From M. Fourcroy's analysis of the brain of men and other animals, this organ appears to be of a peculiar nature, in a chemical view. It differs from all the animal solids, and particularly from spermaceti. It also differs from the albumen of the blood, though it is more nearly allied to it than any other animal fluid.

The first article of the seventeenth volume comprehends the result of a laboured examination, by M. Deyeux, of the gall-nut, the gallic acid, and the precipitate which it produces with iron. The gall-nut, being equally soluble in water and spirit, cannot be distinguished, as usual, into gummy and resinous parts. Its acid is the carbonic, with a large proportion of carbene, which discriminates it from the ordinary acid of carbene. From the other vegetable acids it is distinguished by the absence of hydrogen. Either by an augmentation of the oxygen, or by a diminution of the carbene, it is brought to the state of carbonic acid.

M. Deyeux has also examined the precipitate, which the gallic acid forms with sulphate of iron. In this there is a portion of a blue colour, apparently the same with M. Ribaucourt's second precipitate. It is a gallate of iron, or more probably a triple salt, containing iron with the gallate of pot-

ash. Alcohol separates the acid, and destroys the colour; but, in this salt, the acid is certainly in excess, since an alkali produces an effervescence. After repeated washings, the black precipitate appears to be a true oxyd of iron, with carbone, to which its colour may be attributed. On the whole, this essay is too verbose, and not sufficiently precise: we prefer that of M. Ribaucourt to it.

M. Beaumé's memoir on the method of refining crude salt-petre, is interesting only to the extensive manufacturer, to whom an analysis would be of little importance. M. Gadolin's 'reflections on the effects of heat on the chemical attractions of bodies,' follow. His general design is to show, that as heat is a peculiar fluid, differently attracted by the component parts of bodies, its effects cannot be uniform, and that the changes, which it produces on different substances, must be as various as their nature.

The process for destroying the peculiar taste of melasses, and rendering them proper, in many instances, to be substituted for sugar, may be worth transcribing, though we have reason to think that the syrup will not be pleasing to a delicate palate. 'Mix twenty-four pounds of melasses with an equal quantity of water, and six pounds of pure charcoal powdered. After gentle boiling for half an hour, the liquor must be strained, and the fluid suffered to evaporate to its former consistence.' The result will be twenty-four pounds of syrup.

M. Haüy's memoir on the double refraction of various fossils requires the assistance of the diagrams, to render it intelligible. These minerals are numerous; for the property of double refraction is found in the calcareous carbonate, sulphate of barytes, calcareous sulphate, the Saxon or Brazilian topaz, garnet, rock crystal, chrysolithe, Peruvian emerald, tourmalin, green schorl, &c.

M. Beaumé's memoir, on the method of bleaching silks without waste, so as to make them resemble the Nankin silk, is curious. The worm is destroyed by the affusion of alcohol on the pods, instead of heat, which renders the silk too compact, and makes it difficult to unravel. The spotted cocons must then be separated, as well as those which are naturally of a brilliant white, and which of course do not require any operation. It must be unraveled in the usual way, from the purest water; then washed with, and afterwards immersed in, alcohol, to forty-eight pounds of which, twelve ounces of marine acid, freed from all impregnation of the nitrous, have been added. By frequent immersions in this fluid, the silk becomes colourless; the alcohol is washed out by pouring pure water on the silk, and the acid by the affusion of an alkali. This is probably the mode in which the Nankin silk is bleached, as

some remains of an alkaline solution may be discovered in it. Such is the outline of our author's scheme. Methods of recovering the spirit of wine are added, as well as the preparation of vitriolic acid, proper for procuring the acid of sea-salt without any impregnation of the nitrous. From the observations on the Nankin silk, it seems that the acid of the Chinese manufacturers is by no means pure, or free from nitrous impregnations.

As the liquor for destroying caterpillars, ants, and other insects which infest gardens, may be useful, we will communicate the mode of preparing it. Take a pound and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the best black soap, as much flour of sulphur, two pounds of mushrooms which grow on rotten wood, and thirty quarts of water. Bruise the mushrooms, and, with one half of the water, dissolve the soap; then add the mushrooms. To the other half, the sulphur inclosed in a bag must be added, and sunk by means of a weight to the bottom. The water must boil twenty minutes; during which time you must frequently stir it, and press the bag which contains the sulphur. The two parts must be mixed while hot, and the fluid kept till it becomes extremely foetid. The liquor may be thrown over the plant with a watering pot, or branches may be dipped in it. Two ounces of nux vomica, boiled with the sulphur, will increase the effect.

M. Haüy's explanation of the theory of crystals, is incapable of abridgment, though of considerable importance. A translation of it has been given in a periodical publication.

M. Deyeux's comparative trials with the milk of two cows, fed successively upon grass, and the stalk and leaves of maize, close the seventeenth volume. The difference was not considerable. The fibrous part of the milk seemed less in proportion. The butter was not in less quantity, but it was tasteless. The saccharine part of the milk was in a larger proportion. Our author thinks these experiments favourable to the use of the leaves and stalks of maize, at a time when the usual fodder is scarce.

In entering upon the eighteenth volume, we meet with some experiments by Van Mons, in answer to some German chemists, who contended that mercury, calcined without the access of the external air, did not contain any oxygen, and that this principle, therefore, was not essential to its state of calx: consequently, a part of M. Lavoisier's system was contradicted. The observations of Gren and Westrumb were found to be fallacious by the French chemist.

M. St. Real's memoir on the means of rendering leather impermeable to water without any alteration of its strength or its suppleness, and without a great increase of its price, contains the art of tanning and currying, with some improve-

ments. According to this writer, almost the whole substance of the skin of a calf, when fresh, consists of animal jelly : of fourteen ounces more than nine are gelatinous, and the fibrous part is not equal to four drachms and a half. The object of the tanner is to separate the jelly and mucous parts, and, by the astringent power of the gallic acid, to draw the fibres more closely together, and contract them in every direction. M. St. Real's great principle of improvement consists in macerating the skins in warm water of 60° of Reaumur's thermometer. This is the method practised in Sweden, where the leather is of an excellent kind. It is the business of the currier to discharge the tan that is left in the leather, to fill the pores with oil, and, by pressure, beating, cutting, &c. to bring the leather to an equable consistence, a firmness of texture, and a smoothness of surface.

The analysis of the *falsola soda* of Linnæus, by M. Vauquelin, deserves notice. It is the plant from which the *barilla* is procured ; and the salt is not the produce of fermentation, but exists formally in the vegetable. In other respects, it approaches an animal nature, since it affords the Prussian acid with the nitrous, a wax not unlike bees' wax, and, on distillation, a volatile alkali. No calcareous earth or vegetable alkali can be discovered in *falsola* ; but a very large proportion of magnesia is found in it.

Professor Klaproth corrects an error respecting the red ore of silver. This ore has, by the best writers, been considered as mineralised by arsenic ; but, in reality, it does not contain a particle of this semi-metal. *Regulus of antimony* and *fulphur* are its principal contents. The silver is in the proportion of 62 to 100.

M. Lowitz' method of purifying corrupted water by charcoal is sufficiently known : after much discussion, its merit appears to be generally acknowledged.

Among the articles extracted from *Crell's Chemical Annals*, there is an account of a stone sold at a very high price to an amateur, as *pyrophaneous*. It was of a milky whiteness, with little transparency, but, on warming, resembled a most beautiful topaz, and was said to have been brought from Armenia. M. Saussure, suspecting an imposition, imitated it very exactly, by digesting an *hydrophaneous* stone for some time in melting wax.

M. Bonhomme's memoir on the rickets, in which he attempts to prove, that this disease proceeds from a defect of the bony earth (*calcareous phosphat*), has been frequently translated and analysed in our language. There is no evidence that this *phosphat* is the production of digestion or animalisation. We know that it exists formally in the serum of milk, in the seminal liquor, and perhaps in the bile ; but, in every

instance, it seems to have been introduced *ab extra*, changed perhaps in some of its properties by animalisation; for we consider the phosphoric acid as one of the three mineral acids, perhaps the muriatic, changed by the animal process. If therefore this salt is introduced with the food, rachitis must depend on diet; but any food with inactivity, and damp or close situations, will produce it. It may be said, that this salt is little calculated to pass through the minute lacteals; but M. Bonhomme seems to have removed this objection, by mixing the calcareous phosphate with the food of chicken, and finding in these the ossification advance more rapidly than in others fed differently: this experiment, however, should be repeated by other chemists, though we are more inclined to trust to it from a fact mentioned by Fourcroy, which is not generally known. Near the time of delivery, the serosity of a pregnant woman has a much larger proportion of this earthy salt than at any other period, and a smaller proportion of the more nutritious parts. But, at this time, all the bones are softer, and fractures are more slowly united, so that bony matter is certainly sometimes absorbed, and again deposited; consequently it is capable of passing through the minutest vessels. In the cure M. Bonhomme seems to have succeeded by administering this salt; and he is, in this respect, collaterally supported by the experience of De Haen, who found that great advantage was derived from oyster-shells, and by the practice of many persons of the Boerhaavian school, who have recommended absorbents. On the whole, though we wish to keep M. Bonhomme's system in view, as containing some important observations, we have no very high expectations of the success of the plan.

A memoir by M. Haüy is judicious, as it leads to a more scientific mineralogical arrangement than has been yet proposed. We may have occasion to return to the subject.

M. Prolong's memoir concerning Goree and Senegal contains many curious circumstances: we will select some of the most interesting.

Senegal is a mere bank of sand, nearly on a level with the river of the same name, which divides it into two parts, in 16° north latitude. Goree is a barren rock, high on the south, and terminating in a tongue of low land on the north, in latitude $14^{\circ} 40'$. Goree, Magdalen, Cape Bernard, &c. are decidedly volcanic spots; and Goree affords excellent puozzolane. The heat of Goree is less than that of Senegal by about 3° of Reaumur; and it seems, in 1788, not to have risen above 30° , though in general it is said to be about 33° , and that of Senegal about 36° : at Podor, about 60 leagues from Senegal, the thermometer sometimes rises to 45° . The barometer, as usual near the line, is stationary: the wind is most frequently

from the east; and the rain, annually, is little short of 60 inches: this chiefly falls from June to the middle of October, and so dry is the ground, that it soon disappears.'

The climate of Senegal is well known to be very insalubrious: three in ten Europeans annually die there, and two in ten at Goree: the most fatal time is during the rain. The colour of the skin of negroes, in our author's opinion, which is now the general one, does not depend on the sun, since, in the desert, where the heat is more intense, the black is softened into a brown. M. Prolong's comparative description of the Moors and the negroes, is interesting; and it coincides with the late representations of Mr. Park.

'The moral characters of these Africans (he says) differ as much as their colour; and, except in industry, the advantage is on the side of the negroes. These are in general of larger stature, and their forms are more elegant; they have a smiling countenance, and their looks are full of kindness. The appearance of the Moors is harsh, and sometimes ferocious. Their muscles are bold and strongly marked: their hair longer, and less like wool; their colour a reddish brown.

'If, in some respects, the Moors yield to the negroes, the genius and industry of the former compensate the inferiority. They understand better the working of metals; make, with the hair of camels, stuffs for their clothing; tan, in perfection, the skins of sheep and goats; and understand commerce with accuracy. If not always stronger than the negroes, they are more politic; they are full of deceit, while the negro is faithful and trustworthy. The ascendancy which the Moors have over the blacks is surprising. One or two Moors may travel alone through the whole continent: they enter the cottages of the negroes, demand food, and often lay the host under contributions; but two negroes would not dare to travel, unprotected, through the great desert. This extraordinary ascendancy does not solely arise from the superior genius or industry of the Moors. The latter are the missionaries of Africa: they introduced into this part of the continent the Mohammedan religion, mixed with foreign superstitions, which they have turned to their advantage. They call themselves the children of the God whose worship they recommend; and the negroes seem to adore them.'

Our author has examined many cameleons, and finds that they do not assume every colour; red in particular they never appear; but every shade of yellow, green, and grey, they occasionally assume. The last-mentioned hue is very deep, when they are ill or angry. They die if not regularly fed; their eyes project, and are very moveable, so that they see in every direction; and their skin is often changed. If we suppose that

they have generally two skins of different colours—one, for instance, of a clear yellow, and the other of a deep blue—and that the animal can at pleasure constrict or separate them—it will be easy to explain the various shades, since these skins are (some in a greater, and some in a less degree) transparent.

The negroes are in a state of nature; and they are idolatrously fond of liberty. Their marriages are contracted with little difficulty; and the wives are faithful and affectionate. If the husband's return from a journey is known to be prevented, the wife takes another husband with little ceremony. For Europeans they have a reverential respect.

The eighteenth volume terminates with two memoirs of little importance; one on the subject of atmospherical heat, and the other on the structure of the crystals of sugar.

Les Petits Émigrés, ou Correspondance de quelques Enfants. Ouvrage fait pour servir à l'Éducation de la Jeunesse. Par Madame de Genlis. Paris. 1798.

The Little Emigrants; or the Correspondence of some Children; a Work written to forward the Education of Youth. By Madame de Genlis. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THE commencement of this work corresponds with its title. Edward d'Armilly, a boy of the age of twelve years, is the first character introduced to us. His parents have emigrated, and are settled in Switzerland, while some of his family remain in France, and among them Adelaide, the heroine of the tale, which opens in May 1793. The sentiments of his father may be known from his reply to a letter in which Edward had confessed some trifling disobedience.

‘Be always equally sincere, my Edward, with your best and tenderest friend; and you shall always find in him the most perfect indulgence. The only thing which can deeply wound the feelings of rational and affectionate parents is the want of confidence, because an entire confidence is the only proof of a real and solid friendship.—During many years, my dear child, you will want a guide. Where can you find one more attentive or more zealous than a father? and how can we guide an individual who attempts to conceal his conduct? Ah, my son! never take from me the means of being useful to you. This duty, so delightful and so sacred, I can only perform in concert with you: my single will is not sufficient to discharge it perfectly; you also must be reasonable enough to join yours, and we must act together. But I know your heart, my dear Edward: a heart so similar to that of Adelaide never will deceive me. Hitherto feeling has guided you well, and now reason begins to enlighten you: you can already com-

pare and reflect, and it is from that instant that we really enter on the career of life: you ought then to endeavour to perceive its object, that you may pursue and attain it. Open your eyes, my son! and you will see that object! Fortune has destroyed all the illusions which might have concealed it from you. Would you live to acquire dignities and riches? think of those which we so lately possessed, and see what is left. Do possessions so frail deserve that we should devote ourselves to the ambition of accumulating them? Would you live to obtain a great reputation and the love of your fellow-citizens? reflect on the inconstancy of the multitude, turn your eyes to Paris, behold the inconsistency and the absurdity of its unhappy inhabitants, and you will know how to appreciate the crowns that they bestow. Let the example of some of our compatriots teach you how fatal celebrity may be even when acquired with glory: a celebrated name in proscription is one misfortune more; even in peaceable times it attracts envy and hatred, and cannot escape the shafts of calumny. Great men have always been the objects of the most odious injustice: their contemporaries have never given them due praise except in their funeral orations. Profit, my friend, by the terrible events that are passing under your eyes; they are not historians unfaithful perhaps or ill informed who are speaking to you; it is the striking tablet of all the human passions that opens before you; and you may acquire in a few years the experience of ages. Be just and good—behold the only object of life, the only path of true happiness. The just man is religious, because ingratitude is the blackest injustice, and what gratitude do we not owe to the creator of the universe? The just man reveres, in his parents and in his instructors, his first benefactor upon the earth; he is a faithful observer of the laws, the friend of order and of peace; he serves his country with zeal, and his word is inviolable. If benevolence be united to this character, from this happy mixture springs the true heroism, which consists in performing generous and virtuous actions, not for the sake of applause, but with a view of becoming useful to others.'

This letter contains a few remarks upon some of his son's expressions, and on the spelling of several other persons; remarks which may be useful to children, but which, like the mis-spelled letters of Edward's correspondent, the reader would willingly dispense with. The book soon ceases to consist of the correspondence of children: other characters are introduced; and Edward d'Armilly, at thirteen, is old enough to be in love, and to become the friend and constant companion of lord Selby, an English nobleman of twenty-six!

The adventures of Adelaide d'Armilly form the most interesting part of the work. She emigrates during the worst

period of the revolution, and, by a variety of accidents, loses all traces of her parents. She comes in search of them to England with her governess, and supports herself by teaching the harp. She is of the same age with Edward; and the prematurity of character is less ridiculous in her sex than in his. The woman with whom she lodges plots to deliver her into the power of a Mr. Godwin; and this man, by affecting a monastic devotion and a sincere attachment, completely gains the confidence of the unsuspecting emigrant, whom he promises to accompany to Portugal, where he pretends that she will find her parents. His character, his arts and his views, are delineated in the following letter.

‘At last, Nelson, the angel is in my toils! We wait for the wind; and very soon, when she shall be under my sole protection, and confined in a ship, her destiny will only depend upon me.

‘I admire the moralising strain of your last letter: but what do you say of *corruption*? I *corrupt* Adelaide! love with-holds me: her virtue is part of her beauty; it is the purity of her soul which gives to her looks, to her smile, to her physiognomy, the seductive charm that has captivated me for life! Yes! I would always deceive her, and always preserve her character and her virtue; I will eternise her errors, and charge myself alone with every crime: this is my new plan, my last resolution. It is true that at first I had the vulgar design which you suppose; but I did not then know her; I had then only a fancy for her. I learned to my shame that one might easily deceive her, but that to corrupt her was impossible; her candour and rectitude, ever confounding my skill and the vile management of Purvis, baffled all our projects and defeated our most artful combinations.

‘Che difesa miglior ch’ usbergo e scudo
E la santa innocenza al petto ignudo. TASSO.

‘Other females, Nelson, full of deceit and weakness, see the toils and suffer themselves to be taken. This woman, free from distrust and artifice, and guided by invariable principles and an angelic soul, did not discover or even suspect the grossest deceptions; and yet she escapes from every snare by the sole ascendancy of perfect rectitude. Nelson, we cannot doubt that there is a sublime instinct which is a better guide than foresight and reason. Will you believe it? notwithstanding the success of my hypocrisy, I have clearly seen an invincible repugnance to me in the heart of Adelaide. I have easily excited her gratitude, and usurped her esteem and her admiration; but I have not been able to gain her tenderness. I was not surprised at her aversion for old Miller, who played so awkwardly the venerable personage of the pious Mrs. God-

win; but the adroit and handsome Betsy, under the name of Mrs. Stopford, had no better success; for, notwithstanding her wit, her flattery, her graces and caresses, Adelaide always treated her coldly. For my own part, I have more than once received proofs of her confidence, and sometimes of a momentary sensibility: but that pure heart which has nothing to conceal never opened itself to me without reserve: without knowing the reason, she has always feared me; I have always inspired her with an insurmountable embarrassment. O Nelson, the part of a seducer, which I have acted till now, ceases to amuse as soon as one is really amorous: I am so to madness; and for the first time of my life at *six and thirty*! What a disgrace—what degradation of character! what a reversal of ideas and feelings!—all that once delighted me troubles me now; and I have the weakness often to blush at my own success! I cannot describe what I feel when the incomparable girl, equally prudent, affectionate, and credulous, desired my *holy prayers* for her governess. She was on her knees at my side—I held her arm under mine—I cast a side look at her; her countenance was heavenly—she prayed! I thought I beheld an angel—I remained confounded and trembling before the God whom she invoked! my eyes were filled with tears—I felt a horror at myself!—What did I not suffer also at the time when I persuaded her to trust herself to my protection, and seek her parents? I saw her at my feet—she embraced my knees—I heard her melodious and affecting voice ask God to recall to me *in my last hour* the memory of what I had done for her; and in her error I thought she blest me! Yes, Nelson, I confess it, these striking words were heard in the very depth of my soul—I was on the point of betraying myself—I escaped. Her image, and my remorse, pursued me; I conceived the idea of undeceiving her, of serving her, of sacrificing myself. Love prevailed—fatal passion, which leads me to the crime that it teaches me to detest! But there is another passion more fatal and still more imperious, that which governs my execrable confidante—avarice. I could never discover the appearance of remorse in the soul of the abominable Purvis! The first night that I entered the apartment of Adelaide, while she slept in Sarah's room, I was seized with an universal trembling—it seemed to me that I was profaning the sacred temple of virtue! every thing retraced to me the sweet image of innocence—and hell was in my heart. Whilst Purvis with a bold air coolly ransacked the closets, I remained almost motionless. Purvis took from a drawer a little coffer on which a slip of paper was pasted with these words in Adelaide's writing, *what I have saved of most value*. Do you know, Nelson, what this coffer contained? some of the hair

of her parents, and a dried white rose pasted upon blue paper: these words were written below, *from the rose tree of Rome-val.* The discovery of this innocent secret made Purvis laugh heartily. Vile and detestable creature! how does stupidity increase wickedness! Is it not a proof, Nelson, that vice is essentially absurd, since, to abandon one's-self to it without reserve or remorse, it is necessary to be reduced to the lowest degree of brutal degradation.'

Every thing from the pen of madame de Genlis bears the mark of genius; but this performance appears to us very inferior to any of her former works. A multitude of *episodical* characters are introduced, more frequently to prove the propriety of the author's sentiments, by the absurdities of those who differ from them, than to amuse the reader by any novel or interesting narrative. There is one great and leading absurdity in the story, an absurdity which would in any work have been ridiculous, but which is much more so in a book intended for children. Lord Selby, the English nobleman of six-and-twenty, who is entrusted with secret and important negotiations by the English government, falls in love with Adelaide, a girl of thirteen, whom he has never seen, merely from hearing of her perfections! Why will madame de Genlis, who writes for the instruction of young persons, pamper their imaginations with tales of romantic passion? for surely the mutual prepossession of lord Selby and Adelaide deserves that appellation. In one instance we must object to the morality of the writer—the countess de Lurcé, an emigrant, obtains, by passing as an Italian, a situation which no emigrant could as such have obtained. Politicians may hold the maxim, that deception is allowable; but it ought not to be taught to children. To the catholic superstition of the work we do not object; the author writes to people of her own persuasion, not to heretical critics.

There is a curious remark in one of M. d'Armilly's letters, which we extract on account of the note annexed to it. Juliette has been writing to him upon note-paper: 'it is impossible,' he says, 'to write well upon such paper; repetitions do not strike the eye, because, though they may be very near each other, many lines separate them. I have never seen any letters in this size which were tolerably written; and, without exception, all women whom I have ever known that write well, use only the common paper.' In the note, it is said, 'this observation is not so frivolous as it may perhaps appear; it is not my own; I heard it from the greatest writer of the age, M. de Buffon, who advised me, when I first began to publish, to compose only upon the large paper called *Papier*

à la Tellière. It was what he himself always used, and for the reason given by M. d'Armilly !

The following anecdote (for it is the relation of a fact) must interest every reader.

'One morning, when we came to the mill, we did not find Lolotte, who was in the fields: while we were waiting for her, my father and I conversed with the miller's wife. I had brought several play-things for Lolotte; and the miller's wife, laughing, told me, that they would not please her so well as a little flour. 'How?' said I. She replied, 'for three weeks Lolotte has cared for nothing but heaping up flour. Every morning she comes to beg some of my husband, who gives her a handful: beside this, she invents a thousand little schemes to get some from me; and, when she sees me in a good humour, or when I caresses her, I am sure she is going to say, *give me a little flour.*' The other day we had made some muffins, and I carried one to her: her first movement was to take it; then she considered and said, '*keep your muffin, but give me a little flour.*'—'This is odd,' said my father; 'and what does she do with all this flour?'—'She has asked us for a large sack,' replied the miller's wife—'and there she puts it: the sack is by her bedside; and it must now be almost full.' During this conversation I said nothing; but, reflecting upon it, and perfectly knowing Lolotte, I guessed the cause. I remembered that I had often come to see her with M. and Madame d'Ermont; that we had frequently spoken of France before her; that M. d'Ermont had mentioned the scarcity of bread, and had said that the counter-revolution would be effected by famine. I doubted not that Lolotte's store of flour had some connection with this: but, lest I might be deceived, I kept silence. At last Lolotte returned from her walk; after having embraced us, she sat upon the knee of my father, who did not fail to question her with regard to the flour. Lolotte blushed, and evaded answering, by saying he would laugh at her; but, when she was closely pressed to explain herself, I saw her countenance take that moving expression which it always has when she is going to cry; and then she said with a broken voice—'It is because I knew that very soon there would be no more bread in France,—and I want to send a provision of flour for my nurse Caillet.'

This is an interesting anecdote; and we could select more instances of goodness from these volumes, if our limits would permit. When the game laws were abolished in France, the peasants on the estate of Sillery preserved the game for that respectable and unfortunate man. If the good actions which the revolution has occasioned had been as carefully recorded as its atrocities, humanity would have less reason to blush at

its annals. One of the emigrants mentioned in these volumes says with truth ; ' From the horror which so many crimes excite, you are inclined to believe, that morality and virtue are for ever destroyed in France ; but, my friend, we see only the crimes, because good works are done in secret.'

Traité Analytique de la Résistance des Solides, et des Solides d'égale Résistance ; auquel on a joint une Suite de nouvelles Expériences sur la Force et l'Elasticité spécifiques des Bois de Chêne et de Sapin. Par P. S. Girard, Ingénieur des Ports et des Chaussées. Paris. 1798.

An Analytical Treatise, by Girard, on the Resistance of Solids, and Solids of equal Resistance ; accompanied with a Series of new Experiments on the specific Force and Elasticity of Oak and Fir. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

WE have not lately met with a work in the higher geometry and analysis more worthy of our favourable report than the present performance. The analysis is clear and exact, the historical part full and accurate, and the application of the results, to purposes of utility, judicious. The introduction contains a particular explanation of the works of geometers and philosophers on the resistance of bodies, from the time of the celebrated Galileo. The facts are methodically arranged, and accompanied with just criticism ; and some circumstances in the history of science, not generally known, even by geometers, are communicated to the reader.—In this part of the volume, the author says,

' If in the theory of mechanics we are allowed to consider levers, by which motion is communicated, as perfectly inflexible, the supposition is no longer admissible in the application of this science to the calculation of the power of machines, since nature has formed no substance whose integral parts are inseparable by the action of a given power.—There are consequently two species of equilibrium to be considered in the lever, and the machines connected with it : one exists between the opposite forces, which counterbalance each other ; and the other between a *certain function* of these efforts, and the cohesion of the parts of which the machines are composed. The conditions of the first may be precisely determined ; those of the second only by approximation. The resistance, arising from the cohesion, is the object to be determined ; and, for more than a century, it has engaged the attention of mathematicians and philosophers.'

Galileo, whose thoughts were accidentally turned to this subject, soon determined, that the resistance of a body to a

force, acting parallel to the fibres of which it is composed, was proportioned to their number—in other words, in the ratio of the density and bulk of a body. When it acted perpendicularly, the resistance was in proportion to the sum of the fibres, multiplied by an arm of the lever, which is always a certain part of the vertical dimensions of the solid, in the plane of its rupture. This hypothesis differs from others only in supposing the resistance of each fibre to be independent of the quantity of extension, at the moment of breaking.

The theory of solids of equal resistance, of which Galileo was the inventor, requires some explanation. The force of a power, acting on a body perpendicular to its length, tends to break it not only at the point of resistance, but at every section parallel to this base. Each section therefore must have dimensions adapted to its resistance. A fishing-rod, for instance, would break off close to the hand, if it were not enlarged at that part; and proportionally near it, if not suitably enlarged, to increase the resistance. This is a body which may be given as an example of equal resistance; and the object of nature is to make the bulk as small as is compatible with this proportional resistance in every part. In this, she succeeds completely. The feathers of winged animals afford a striking example of her execution of her purposes at the least expense. These, in beating the air during the flight of the bird, are exposed to the action of a pressure, which tends to break them at every point. They must therefore resist equally, with a force compatible with extreme lightness. It is consequently observable, that the axis of every feather is a solid, the bases of whose fracture decrease, according to a given law, from its origin to its extremity, or correspond constantly with a base of a fracture equal to 0, the characteristic of a solid of the least resistance.

M. Girard traces the additions and improvements which the discoveries of Galileo received from his successors, including the unequal contest between Marchetti and Grandi. Mariotte, in 1680, gave a new turn to the doctrine; and, not finding his results accord with those of Galileo, he suggested a new hypothesis. Leibnitz, however, soon reconciled these results; the difference of which arose from this circumstance, that Galileo considered bodies as inflexible, which, in reality, yield a little before they break. From that period, all bodies were deemed more or less elastic; and their resistance was calculated on this hypothesis—an hypothesis resting on the idea, that the resistance of fibres was proportioned to their extension. James Bernouilli examined this foundation with care; and, having observed that, at the moment of breaking, some fibres are extended, while the others are compressed, he endeavoured to prove (in a memoir published in

1705), that homogeneous fibres of the same dimensions, charged with different weights, are neither extended nor compressed in proportion to these weights; for, if they were, he adds, in some cases a fibre might be compressed more than its whole length, which is absurd. On reducing this opinion to experiment, he found a string of catgut three feet long, charged successively with weights of 2, 4, 6, and 8 pounds, extended 9, 17, 23, and 27 lines, whereas, if the extension had been proportional to the weight, it would have been 9, 18, 27, and 36 lines. The system of Leibnitz, therefore, was not more accurately true than that of Galileo; but it is so simple, and so generally conformable to phænomena, that it has been usually followed.

Bernouilli also examined the curve, which an elastic substance forms in bringing its extremities toward each other; and he gave the equation of this curve in 1705. Euler improved on this discovery, and, in 1744, gave a solution of the problem, when the force acts parallel to the fibres: it was only known, when the power acted perpendicularly to them or in a given degree of inclination. This discovery was a corollary to some beautiful propositions on elastic curves; and the resistance was found to be in proportion to the absolute elasticity, and in the inverse ratio of the square of the length of the solid, either prismatic or cylindrical. It is remarkable that, when a weight acts parallel to the fibres, any curvature should take place: yet the theory shows, that with a given weight some bending should begin. This paradox Euler explained in 1757.

His memoir is terminated by an inquiry into the resistance of columns, which have no constant bases of fracture between their extremities; an inquiry which might be usefully applied to heterogeneous bodies, if it were not surrounded by so many difficulties.—This species of longitudinal resistance, which the geometers of the last age studied with so much care, will furnish employment for those who adorn our times.—M. de la Grange found exactly the same expression for the resistance of an elastic plate, pressed in a direction parallel to its length, as Euler had obtained, when he began to engage in an enquiry, whether swelling a column about one-third of its height, according to the direction of Vitruvius, would contribute to increase its strength. He first examined the curve in which it would begin to bend; and, by considerations drawn from the nature of integrations, by arcs of a circle, he found, that nothing would limit the points of inflection of this curve, if the force which produced it were equably applied. Submitting then his equation to a more rigorous examination, he showed, that its greatest ordinate was imaginary, when the weight on

the column had not reached a certain limit; and thus he destroyed the difficulty which Euler had felt and overcome, though without having offered any analytical proof.—He then inquired which solid of those which were formed by the revolution of the sections of a cone, had the greatest resistance parallel to its elementary fibres, its height and bulk remaining the same. He discovered that a conoid, produced by a revolution of a straight line, possessed this property, and that, among all the columns in the form of a truncated cone, those whose superior and inferior bases were equal, were also capable of the greatest resistance. The method of variations, applied to the question in its whole extent, gave the same solution; and it was clear that, if the enlargement of columns near their base gave a greater elegance of form, it added nothing to their strength. The cylindrical figure, therefore, is best adapted to them.'

In these cases the weight of the column was neglected; but Euler investigated the height of a pillar, which would fall with its own weight. This height appeared infinite; but the conclusion was contradicted by his other inquiries; and he was obliged to examine the influence of some horizontal powers, which act vertically in occasioning the inflection. He then found that the height was limited; and afterwards investigated the limits. The intricate form of the expression, however, has, we believe, hitherto confined it to mathematicians.

With regard to M. Girard's improvements upon the labors of his predecessors, we may observe, that, while the formula, expressing the resistance of solids, given by Varignon in 1702, applies only to fractures, whose bases are uniform and continuous, our author renders it applicable to fractures of every kind, whatever the bases may be, and even to those not composed of homogeneous substances. He has collected, from the hypotheses of Galileo and Leibnitz, the resistance of bodies in common use.—The resistance of solids, which break at two points of rest, he has also considered with care; and the results of the calculation are wholly conformable to experiment. The first section is terminated by a long digression concerning elastic curves, which lead to the formula of the longitudinal resistance of bodies pressed onward in a direction parallel to the length of their fibres.

The second section contains an accurate and complete theory of solids of equal resistance. They are first considered as loaded transversely, and their general equation is given, their own weight being allowed or deducted. This formula is applied to numerous bodies, the bases of whose fractures have no determined relation. The writer then gives the equation of those solids which resist equally in the direction of their fibres

and thence he deduces the decrements in the links of a long chain. Passing afterwards to solids, pressed on in a direction parallel to their length, he examines the form which adapts them to equal resistance, taking their own weight into consideration. This formula is applicable to columns, and is equally adapted to those which are composed of homogeneous and heterogeneous materials. This section concludes with a determination of the points of greatest and least resistance in bodies, whose resistance is not equal.

The last section contains, exclusively, M. Girard's experiments on oak and fir, to ascertain their respective resistances, when loaded either parallel or perpendicular to their length. These woods, charged in the direction of their fibres, have exhibited various appearances. Among them, the double inflection has been most frequently conspicuous. They have been chiefly considered as resisting bodies in a longitudinal direction, to ascertain their absolute elasticity, not only because its expression is an essential element in what relates to the weight which bends them, but because this expression contributes to assign the relation of the points of curvature to the weight which bends them when acting transversely.

In the theory of the resistance of bodies, the effect of the longitudinal cohesion of their fibres, which certainly increases the difficulty of bending them, has been neglected. The absolute elasticity of bodies, which, in the hypotheses of geometers, was supposed to depend wholly on the bases of their fractures, must consequently be, in part, connected with the length of their integrant fibres. The function of this length, which represents the longitudinal cohesion, is therefore investigated, to ascertain their absolute, *specific*, elasticity.

As these experiments were pursued at different seasons, the author had occasion to remark the great influence of the different states of the atmosphere. This point has not yet been accurately adjusted.

These sections treat of the resistance of solids in a state of equilibrium with the forces which tend to overcome them; but this resistance is found to diminish while the charge continues to act, and the laws of dynamics must be employed to ascertain the circumstances of the inflection. Bodies being supposed perfectly elastic, an almost indivisible instant is required for very minute inflections. If therefore the inflection continues, it must be because bodies are *imperfectly* elastic; and the imperfection consists in this, that instead of remaining constant, it loses every moment a portion of its energy. By means of this supposition, M. Girard has ascertained a ratio between the points of curvature and the continuance of the inflection. The difficulty at present consists in ascertaining

the loss of the elasticity, which requires more extensive and more accurate observations. The details of the experiments, comprised in tables, are subjoined.

Schilderung der Gebirgsvölker der Schweiz. Von J. G. Ebel.

Description of the Inhabitants of the Mountains of Switzerland.

Vol. I. with six Plates. 8vo. Imported by Escher.

• AMONG the many prejudices to which individuals are subject, one of the strongest is that which attaches them to their native country. This predilection, if it be kept within due bounds, may sometimes be converted to useful purposes; but, when it leads us to a contempt of other nations, it ought to be stigmatised as weakness and folly. The French formerly gloried in their *grand monarque*: they have now changed the terms, but not their vanity; and the *great nation* is a title under which they claim pre-eminence over their neighbours. It will perhaps be difficult to find any country without some reasons to be alleged in favour of its constitution. That which to others may appear extremely absurd, may be limited by various institutions capable of correcting in practice the errors of a pernicious theory. These observations occurred to us on reading this interesting account of the canton of Appenzell; for to this canton the greater part of the volume is appropriated. The manners, constitution, religion, and history of this people, are ably discussed; and the writer enlivens his work with a variety of anecdotes which he learned in the country itself.

This small canton, before the late revolution in Switzerland, exhibited the picture of a perfect democracy. It was divided into two parts, the catholic and the protestant, united in many respects, but having complete sovereignty in their respective domains. The foundation of the constitution was the sovereignty of the people; and this was not merely an abstract idea, but was realised in practice every year. The people in each district met annually to enact laws, to elect the officers of state, and to form alliances. Every man above the age of sixteen had a vote in this assembly, and was eligible to the highest office. The oath of allegiance was to the sovereignty of the people; and a breach of that oath appeared as traitorous as the dereliction of allegiance in others to a crowned monarch. The idea of that sovereignty was rooted in the mind of the inhabitants, and strikingly influenced their language and behaviour. ‘Who is the prince of this country?’ said our author to an Appenzeller whom he overtook on the road. ‘We are a free people;’ was the answer. ‘But how can you be governed without a king, a prince, or a lord?’ ‘We

are a free people,' he replied; 'we know no lord, but one in heaven.' It is useless to reason with them on this point. 'We were freed,' they say, 'by the favour of God and the strength of our arms;' and, lifting up their arms, they testify by their countenances their dissatisfaction at any arguments against their supposed natural rights.

This idea naturally forms a character which is a strong contrast to that of their German and most of their Swiss neighbours. A considerable degree of inequality prevails both in real and personal property, but none in rank. At one time, the landman, or first executive magistrate, was a carpenter; at another, that officer was an innkeeper: but they were both men of extraordinary merit. To preserve the popular sovereignty, the magistrates are annually chosen; their salaries are too trifling to excite strong competition; and they have no means of creating an influence by places and pensions. A people with such ideas could only have been formed from a remarkable coincidence of circumstances and situations. The disputes of emperors, bishops, and feudal lords, gave them, in the early part of the fifteenth century, an opportunity of profiting by their mountains, and freeing themselves from a foreign yoke. They proclaimed, that men were made for order, not for slavery; that they must choose their rulers, and no longer be the slaves of lords. They added, that every man had a right to freedom as soon as he felt and could maintain it; that the free man brought the right of freedom on his land; and that, on the contrary, the land could do nothing to make him serviceable to a free people. With these notions they defended themselves against their former masters, and formed a democracy which long subsisted in full vigor.

In politics the two parts of the canton agree, in religion they differ considerably; and, by all accounts, as well as our own ocular observation, the catholic district is inferior to that of the protestants, in wealth, in industry, and in cleanliness. In both parts, the sentiments of honour are correct; and the sternness and severity of democracy are seen in the strictness of their attention to morals. Their laws are not so much to be sought in folios, as in the hearts of the people; and on this point our author makes some good observations. 'Their laws are not printed. Manuscript copies of them are to be found in the hands of several, but not, as might be expected in a republican state, of all the people. Hence each Appenzeller is not so well acquainted with the laws of his country as with the unintelligible questions and answers in the theological catechism, with which his memory is ridiculously burdened from his childhood. Not laws, but a habit and formation of morality grounded on reason, make men virtuous. In

a well-regulated state, the gates and doors are not to be covered with laws and commands; but the souls of the citizens are to be inspired with a love of justice. Hence moral education is of the greatest importance.'

The Appenzellers are distinguished for their openness, frankness, and (a quality in which they more resemble the English than any other nation) good humour. Knowledge has not made much progress amongst them; yet there are in their history many striking instances of their good sense, unaided by learned disquisitions. At the time of the reformation, they were warned against the introduction of heresies; and much labour might have been employed on this simple people, if they had not, at their general meeting, adopted the following resolutions: 'That the priests should teach and preach nothing inconsistent with the scripture or with truth; that whoever should presume to teach otherwise should be interdicted from all food and from all protection, and driven out of the country; and that, in all assemblies of communicants, it should be maintained that in religious affairs the minority should submit to the majority; but that no community should, on this account, speak against or offer any obstruction to another.' From this time the superstitious catholics and more enlightened protestants lived in harmony, though eagerly tenacious of their respective opinions.

Living amidst mountains, each, in a great measure, insulated in his own little domain, consisting of a few pastures, with a right of commonage in the neighbouring Alps, they were able, for nearly four centuries, to preserve their constitution, and, in late years, to introduce a degree of wealth and affluence which some would have deemed incompatible with their manners and government. From a pastoral life they turned their attention to manufactures; and, on their bleak mountains, performed with ease what many monarchs had in vain attempted in their own territories. The manufacture of cotton flourished with them in a high degree. Many of their manufacturers had correspondents in Russia, Spain, and Italy. They exemplified in the strongest manner the answer of the Bourdeaux merchant to Colbert; *laissez nous faire*—leave us to ourselves. No premiums were requisite where no prohibitions subsisted. The cotton was brought into the canton; and the mountaineers, after spending part of the day on a rugged eminence, employed the remainder at the loom.

On the manufacturing spirit of this canton, we have the following judicious remark:

'We can by no means confute the conjecture of an observer, that the spirit of manufactures and trade must have

had some influence on the manners, sentiments, and character of the Appenzellers; but still it has not been attended with those great and general vices which have been remarked in other countries to be the usual consequences of a spirit of gain. To fathom the reasons of this phenomenon, would be in many respects of great importance. From my researches, the principal cause seems to me to lie in their constitution, which maintains civil and political liberty, and is the strongest remedy against rank or the spirit of casts, with which riches have hitherto been generally so far attended, as to produce much moral evil, destructive of the true welfare of mankind. It is true also, that pure morals and an incorrupt character are best preserved when the inhabitants of a country are not crowded too closely together, but are accustomed to live separate. The villages of the protestant Appenzell consist only of from forty to fifty houses: the other families belonging to each community or parish live within a circuit of six to twelve miles, each in the midst of his meadows. Besides, they are not merely manufacturers; for the greater part of them possess a little property, take care of a few goats and cows, and divide their time between the business of the herd and the loom.

Professor Meiner, whose letters on Switzerland are esteemed, is less favourable to the Appenzellers than the author of the work before us; but it is certain that he made fewer observations on them; and, remaining only a short time amongst a people whose modes of thinking were a contrast to those in which he had been educated, he was perhaps incapable of doing them strict justice. Some of his objections are well answered; particularly, his complaint respecting the allowance of the right of voting to lads of only sixteen years of age. 'Had he' (says our author) 'spoken as the thing really is, he must have made a different impression on his readers. The lads of sixteen years of age make between a twentieth and fiftieth part of that assembly which treats of things prepared and conducted in general by the supreme council—affairs which are seldom very intricate, and require only plain common sense. At any rate the imperfection does not seem to be so great when lads of sixteen form a small part of the legislative body, as when a lad of sixteen or fourteen years of age may alone give laws, and make or unmake at pleasure the superior council.' This is true; but an attentive reader of history will observe, that democracy and monarchy in many respects come near each other; and the caprice of an assembly may sometimes be as fatal to liberty and justice as that of a tyrant. A striking instance is given in this history, where, contrary to all law and justice, the assembly sanctioned the deposition and the consequent murder of a virtuous landamman.

To those who are desirous of forming true notions of a simple people, and of the effects of pure democracy, this work will be particularly useful. It contains a great number of facts, and a very good view of the constitution and laws of the Appenzellers. It is improper, however, to draw general conclusions, either in favour of democracy or against it, from this instance of a people living under such a form of government for so great a length of time. The situation of the people must be taken into consideration; and, from an attentive examination of the effects of monarchy in so large a country as China, and of democracy in so small a state as Appenzell, a striking contrast might be drawn, which would extend the present limits of political knowledge.

Opuscles Chymiques de Pierre Bayen, Membre de l'Institut National de France, &c. Paris. 1798.

Chemical Works of Peter Bayen, Member of the Institute. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

BAYEN was a chemist of the old school; but this circumstance does not detract from his merit. Diligent, exact, and faithful in his reports, he has considerably added to the stock of our knowledge; and we have only occasion to regret that his active and useful life left him too little leisure to extend the sphere or protract the duration of his instructions. By a perusal of his pieces which now appear, we are induced to wish that he had written more.

This edition was prepared by his nephew P. Malatret, who has added some particulars to the Eloge written by M. Parmentier. We are informed by the encomiast, that Bayen, in his infancy, loved the country, and amused himself with its labours; and that his attachment to chemistry arose from a common incident, not unlike those which determine boys to different professions: this puerile propensity is then called genius. In 1755, at the age of thirty, he was appointed chief apothecary in the expedition to Minorca; and he afterwards went with the army to Germany, in the same capacity. In this office he was diligent, ingenious in resources, when accidents or neglect had deprived the army or the hospitals of some useful article, simple in his manners, conciliatory in his address, and communicative. Like other communicative men, he was sometimes deprived of the honour or the profit of his own discoveries; and the following anecdote shows with what good humour he could notice this illiberal treatment. 'One of those men, who are to the learned what the wasps are to the bees, had collected

from the conversation of Bayen some opinions, which he had the impudence to retail as his own. Bayen heard of the circumstance, but he only smiled, disdaining to cry out 'stop thief,' as many would have done. The same man, who had found the advantage of a harvest where he had not sown, returned to pillage a field too fertile to be soon exhausted. Bayen, without hesitation, communicated whatever his visitant wished to know; but, when the parasite, contented with his spoil, was overpowering him with thanks, and preparing to quit him, the chemist, with his usual simplicity, said, "You did not know then what I have mentioned?" "No—I was completely ignorant of it."—"I have now," added Bayen, "a favour to ask of you, that, when you shall have reached the bottom of my staircase, you will not speak of yourself as having ascended it only to teach *me*."

M. Parmentier bestows too great praise on common exertions of ingenuity; and it is exaggerated praise to say that Bayen had not been four days in a country without knowing it better than those who inhabited it. The loss of his remarks on Minorca cannot be great, if his accounts were so trifling as are here recorded from memory,—that the onions were large, tortoises numerous, animals in general small, and the Minorquins fond of spices.

As a chemist, our author was sedulous and persevering; but unfortunately, during the reign of terror, 'when a barbarous destiny snatched Lavoisier from the deploring sciences,' Bayen burned his manuscripts: a few detached notes only remain; and two of these we will transcribe, as the remarks are lively.

'*Pauperis est numerare pecus.*'—My father, though he was unacquainted with Latin, could translate these words: "He who knows the number of his crowns," he would say, "is not rich."—My good father knew the number of *his*; and his son is equally wise in this respect.

'Whenever I made theriaca, I dissolved my opium in Spanish wine, contrary to the usual custom of powdering the extract with other ingredients: I thought myself very clever; but I found it to be truly the practice of Andromachus.'

The modest, simple Bayen died at the age of seventy-three, without a single enemy. When he was accused in a despicable pamphlet, together with his colleague, of prejudices in favour of the *ancien régime*, he said to his secretary, 'write in the margin,—they have indeed two prejudices, which they inherited from their parents, and which they will always preserve: one is to excuse fools; the other, to pardon rascals.'

From what M. Malatret has added, we find, that Bayen was educated at Troyes, according to the severe system of Port-Royal. His imagination, repressed in his youth, did not dazzle in riper years. The best part of Homer, in his opinion, was the description of the gardens of Alcinous; the best work of Hesiod, the *Εργα και Ημεραι*. He derived from his instructors rigid sentiments of religion, which were not shaken by fashion or ridicule. Among the different branches of the *belles lettres*, he was fond of etymology; and one passage, which relates to this subject, we will extract.

‘ There are some curious etymologies, by which, as by a telescope, our horizon is greatly extended. The names, for instance, of the three quarters of the globe were taken from the Phrygian language, which was even anterior to the Celtic. Asia signifies the country of the Gods, and Asia was the cradle of all religions. Europe imports the country of men; and in no other part of the world are the strength and dignity of the human species so advantageously developed. Africa means the country of apes; and every traveller, every geographer, ancient or modern, testify that its woods are full of these animals.’

This may be styled fanciful; but what relates to physiognomy is more so. He considers Lavater's doctrines as uncertain, and thinks that no physiognomical writer deserves attention except Prosper Aldorizio, ‘ who first observed the relations which the organs of the voice bear to the physical and moral character of the individual.’ This opinion he cherished with enthusiasm.

The earliest work of Bayen was an analysis of the waters of Bagneres, which contain much sulphur: this, at the source, is in a state of perfect solution, but it is deposited on mixing the water with a colder fluid, exposing it to free air, &c. He examines the silky, gelatinous depositions which are found when the waters are left at rest: they consist of an oily bituminous substance, while the pellicle, which rises on the surface, is vitrifiable earth minutely divided. He also treats of the saline efflorescences from the rocks in the neighbourhood of the springs: these are a true gypsum, containing also sulphates of alumine, of iron and magnesia.

The next essay is an ingenious and laborious examination of mercurial precipitates. In this inquiry, Bayen failed only in not examining the air produced, which might have led him, in M. Parmentier's opinion, to the discoveries that have added so much credit to Priestley and Lavoisier. Hales, however, knew, that the increased weight of oxyds arose from the air absorbed; and Mayow was convinced that air better than common air might be drawn from nitre; but they did not pursue

the hint; and Bayen's other labours might have equally prevented him from attending to the subsequent steps. In this essay, which was written about the æra of the first chemical revolution, we find the earliest doubts of the existence of phlogiston.

The first volume terminates with an analysis of the mercurial syrup of Belet. This boasted remedy is found to be deceitful; for it contains not an atom of mercury. It is pretended to be a solution of this metal in sweet spirit of nitre; but, in the dulcification of the acid, the mercury is precipitated, since the acid has a greater affinity with the spirit than the metal.

The first memoir of the 2d volume contains an analysis of an ore of sparry iron, known in Germany by the name of ore of steel. Bayen found it to contain a carbonate of iron, joined with a little zinc; and, when examined in the mass, it appeared, at different places, mixed with some quartz and calcareous spar. Bergman, who afterwards analysed the white ores of iron, found no zinc; but M. Dizé repeated Bayen's experiments on a part of the same specimen, and found that it included a portion of zinc.

A following essay contains an analysis of marbles, porphyries, ophites, granites, jaspers, and argillaceous schisti. At the time when Bayen's labours on these materials commenced, little was known of their nature. One great object which he had in view, was to determine the durability of different marbles, when exposed to the air. If experience has not ascertained this point, chemical experiments will be of great service, as the durability of marble, particularly when employed in public or ornamental works, is of no small consequence.

Various observations on manganese, pechstein, and the different processes to obtain the salt of wood-sorrel, follow. The last labour of Bayen was an analysis of tin, which had been nearly exploded on being suspected to contain arsenic. Its innocence, however, is now completely established.

Œuvres diverses de Jean-Jacques Barthélemy. Paris. 1798.

Various Works of John James Barthélemy. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s.
sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS author is well known to the admirers of French literature; and his name will not soon be forgotten. Of learning, abilities, and taste, he possessed a very considerable portion; and his private character did not disgrace his literary fame. Having, on a former occasion*, given a sketch of his

* See our XVth V l. New Arr. p. 517.

life, we shall pass over the biographical and panegyrical accompaniments of the present publication, and proceed to observe, that all the pieces which these volumes contain are not new to the world.

The first piece is called a treatise of morals, and is divided, on the foundation of a passage in Xenophon's *Cyropædia*, into four parts—the duty of religion, regard for our parents and relatives, love of our country, and respect for our friends. The first head is superficially treated: but we may quote the conclusion in approving terms. 'The Christian religion, when divested of all the wretched additions and appendages by which men have corrupted it, is the finest system of morals, and the most subservient to human happiness. It enriches the soul with every virtue: expands and enlarges it; fills it with love and benevolence; and procures it that sweet, profound, unalterable peace, which makes us the friends of others as well as of ourselves, and which the world can neither give nor take away.'—There is nothing striking under the second head. In the third section, active patriotism is enforced, and general propriety of conduct recommended. In the fourth, the writer maintains, that the understanding cannot be the only bond of friendship, as it is too jealous of superiority; that the heart ought to be the only bond of union, but that its natural impetuosity requires the control of prudence and judgment; and that a love of virtue and a conformity of character are the inseparable and essential requisites of permanent friendship.

The next piece is the romance of *Carite and Polydore*, which was first published as a translation from the Greek: but this pretence deceived few readers. It is now more correctly presented to us than it was before. It is a pleasing and interesting production.

A poem follows, entitled '*La Chanteloupée, ou la Guerre des Puces*'—the *Chanteloupiad*, or the War of the Fleas. It is a lively burlesque piece, which will bring to the reader's recollection the *Batrachomyomachia* attributed to Homer; though it is not equal in merit to that poem.

The remarks on the journey of Messieurs Dawkins and Wood to Palmyra and Balbec, and on the publications of the latter of those gentlemen, were first printed in the *Journal des Savans*: they are, for the most part, judicious. Other pieces inserted by M. Barthélemy in the same journal are here re-printed.

The inquiries into the distribution of spoils among the ancients were produced by an application from Mr. Hans Stanley, the negotiator, who wished for the removal of his doubts upon the subject. Our author thus states the result of his investigation.

* 1. In the heroic ages, when the generality of wars had for their object not the acquisition of territory, but the avengement of insults; when soldiers, having no regular pay, could subsist only on the produce of depredation; and when the greater part of those combatants joined their commanders with no other view than that of providing a sufficiency for their support during the remainder of their lives; the general was accustomed to regulate the division of the booty. He distributed one part among the soldiers, reserved a share for himself, and kept the rest for the purpose of exciting emulation by occasional rewards. 2. When the troops had regular pay, the government seemed to have just pretensions to that share of the spoil which otherwise was due to the former. 3. This claim, however, was not established by law, if we may judge from the silence of the Greek legislators and orators. It never was so prevalent as to preclude the military leaders, on certain occasions, from distributing the booty among their followers.'

In treating of the particular customs of the Romans with regard to booty, the abbé endeavours to prove, that the chief commander had the privilege of disposing of it; that he was at liberty to dedicate to the gods, or appropriate to the embellishment of Rome, a portion of the spoil; that he was permitted to bestow a part on the troops, and keep a share for himself, and also to determine what amount or quantity (and, in the earlier ages of the republic, whether any part whatever) should be sent to the public treasury; but that he was ultimately obliged to give an account of his disposition of the booty.—The author did not complete his inquiries into these points; but he gave Mr. Stanley such information as the latter declared to be 'satisfactory and conclusive.'

These pieces are succeeded by 'Fragments of a literary Tour.' In the first of these fragments, an account is given of some well-known antiquities in the south of France. In the second, some ruins, supposed to be those of Tauroentum, on the coast of Provence, are described. Of the fifth fragment, a journey from Placentia to Bologna is the subject. Several of Correggio's pictures at Parma are particularised; and Barthélemy thus expresses his 'general idea' of that painter. 'He is delicate, graceful, elegant in the representation of heads, especially those of women, dexterous in grouping, true and strong in his colouring, and skilled in the art of expression, but frequently incorrect in design.'—A pleasing description is given of Bologna; but, as considerable alterations have taken place in that city since our author's visit to it, we may be excused from quoting any of his remarks.—The next fragment contains a short description of the gallery of Florence, begin-

ning in the strain of a *virtuoso*. 'Far be from me those narrow-minded mortals who dare admire the conquerors of the earth; and far also from me be those cold observers who are insensible to the pleasing impressions which masterly works of art are calculated to produce, or who feel no enthusiasm or vigour at the sight of such performances! Far be all those persons in whose eyes medals appear only as pieces of copper, paintings as canvas smeared with oil, and statues as mere hewn stone. Here the grand schemes of the Egyptians are found united with the delicate taste of the Greeks and the magnificence of the Persians. Here private individuals, who became the fathers and the chiefs of their nation, collected the spirit of Greece when it was on the point of being extinguished, paved the way for the revival of arts and sciences in Europe, and made order, justice and truth, as well as commerce, flourish in their country, by a policy which cost mankind no blood or tears. None but well-formed hearts can properly appreciate the merit of the Medici family; and none but those who are inspired with a true taste for the arts (literally, 'blessed by the father of the arts') can properly view the beauties of the Florentine gallery.' At the close of this piece, while the abbé boasts of the superiority of the royal collection of medals at Paris to that of the grand duke at Florence, he admits the inferiority of the cabinet of general antiquities in the former capital; at the same time recommending such a concentration of the statues and other remains of ancient times, as might at once exhibit models for artists, and attract numerous *amateurs* to Paris. He did not foresee, that his countrymen, before the termination of the century in which he lived, would promote similar purposes by a spirit of depredation, by robbing Italy of her fairest works of ancient art.

The other fragments relate to the principal antiquities which our author observed in different parts of Italy. They do not require from us any particular remark.

The 'Reflexions upon some Mexican Paintings' afford a probable explication of the subjects of those pieces. The 'Instructions for M. Dombey,' point out proper objects for the attention of a person preparing, at the public expence, to visit Peru. The succeeding paper is a memoir read before the commissioners, appointed in the year 1792, to consider of the best means of preserving curious monuments or works of art.

The 'Sketch of a new Roman History' exhibits, in a ludicrous point of view, the fables of ancient poets and historians. It first appeared in the *Mercure de France*, in 1792.

In the 'Treatise on Greek Medals' we have only a small part of a very comprehensive plan of medallic inquiry. From the execution of this part, we have reason to regret, that the

work was left unfinished. The instructions for M. Houel, (painter to Louis XVI.) who meditated a tour to Naples and Sicily, chiefly respect the same branch of antiquarian study; and, in a 'Memoir for the Regulation of the Royal Cabinet of Medals,' we find some judicious advice upon the same subject.

The speech of Barthélemy, on his admission into the French academy in 1789, has been separately published. It contains an eulogium upon the philosophical grammarian Beauzée, whose place he filled in that respectable society.

The second volume terminates with letters from the abbé to various friends, on points of antiquarian research, and with 'Remarks on the Rights enjoyed by ancient States over their Colonies.' In the last piece, he favors the opinion of M. de Bougainville, who, in a dissertation which obtained an academical prize, declared for the full dependence of colonial establishments.—Such are the contents of two volumes by which the classical student and the general reader may be entertained and instructed.

Correspondence Secrète de Charette, Stofflet, Puisaye, Cormatin, d'Autichamp, Bernier, Frotté, Scépeaux, Botherel, &c. Paris. 1799.

The secret Correspondence of Charette, Stofflet, Puisaye, Cormatin, d'Autichamp, Bernier, Frotté, Scépeaux, Botherel, &c. followed by the Journal of Olivier d'Argens, and the political and civil Code by which La Vendée was ruled during the Rebellion. Printed from the Originals, seized by the Armies of the Republic. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS work does not answer our expectations; for many uninteresting papers are inserted in it; and one volume would have contained all that were worthy of being published. The vain schemes of the insurgents, and the common news of the day, cannot command the attention of the reader, accustomed in the present times to a rapid succession of events of real importance. We shall, however, translate a few of the most striking passages, rather for the amusement than for the instruction of our readers.

' General Souwarow to M. de Charette, generalissimo of the troops of the king of France, at his headquarters.

' Hero of La Vendée! Illustrious defender of the faith of thy fathers, and of the throne of thy kings! Health.

‘ May the God of hosts perpetually watch over thee ! May he guide thine arm through the numerous battalions of thy foes, who, marked by the finger of that avenging God, shall fall dispersed, like leaves blasted by the north wind !

‘ And you, immortal Vendéans ! faithful preservers of the honour of the French, worthy companions in arms of a hero, under his guidance again raise the temple of the Lord, and the throne of your kings. May the wicked perish ! May their very footsteps be effaced ! Then may beneficent peace return, and the ancient stem of the fleur-de-lis, now bent before the tempest, arise amidst you, more beautiful and more majestic.

‘ Brave Charette, honour of French knights, the universe is full of thy fame. Europe contemplates thee in astonishment ; and I admire and congratulate thee. God cherishes thee, as heretofore he did David, for the punishment of the Philistines. Adore his decrees. Fly, attack, strike ! and victory will follow thy steps.

‘ Such are the wishes of a soldier, who has become grey in the fields of honour, having constantly seen victory crown the confidence which he had placed in the God of battles. Glory to him ; for he is the source of all glory ! Glory to thee ; for he loves thee. SOUWAROW.

‘ This first of October, 1795, at Warsaw.’

This curious epistle, written amidst the carcases of the poor Poles, is accompanied with the following letter :

‘ The Marquis du Boscade to M. de Charette, generalissimo of the troops of the king of France.

‘ My general, Warsaw, Oct. 1, 1795.

‘ Being charged by his excellency, the field-marshal count of Souwarow-Rymnikski, with a flattering commission for a Frenchman, that of remitting his letter to you, I hasten, my general, to forward it, as the most worthy homage to your virtues and your glory, since it is the expression of the sentiments of one of those great men, whom nature only gives to the astonished universe in the course of many ages, afterwards reposing herself, as if fatigued with the magnitude of her own production.

‘ Twenty-four battles gained—the standard of the crescent humiliated—the Turk constrained to request peace, after losing a part of his territories—conqueror at Kinbourn, at Foxani, he flew to gather immortal laurels on the banks of the Rymnik, and thence to plant the standard of Catharine II. on the ruined walls of Ismailow. Conqueror of Poland, through the bloody ramparts of Praga, he entered triumphant into Warsaw, with the olive-branch in his hand. He flies, and victory follows his steps : never did any reverse of fortune

taint one leaf of his numerous laurels. By his victories the vast empire of the immortal Catharine is increased from west to south. With such a general, Catharine, that great and real king, may exclaim with Agésilas, "the frontiers of Laconia are the points of the spears of my soldiers."

'Such is, my general, the hero who congratulates you. A profound judge of the art in which you have acquired so much glory, he has contemplated you, supporting with a firm and tranquil arm, in the midst of storms and tempests, the throne of the Bourbons, which reeled on all sides,' &c. &c.

(Signed) 'The Marquis du Boscage, superior officer of the body-guards of the French king, colonel of his cavalry, and now lieutenant-colonel in the Russian service.'

We proceed to extract the 'interrogatory of Charette, chief of the robbers of La Vendée, by Peter Perrin,' &c.

Question. 'What is your name, of what age are you, and what is your quality?'

Answer. 'Francis Athanasius Charette of La Contrie, aged thirty-three years, native of Couffé, in the department of Inferior Loire, before the revolution lieutenant of a ship, now lieutenant-general, appointed by the king Louis XVIII. and lately chief of the royal army of La Vendée.'

Q. 'Who appointed you chief of the royal army of La Vendée?'

A. 'Louis XVIII.'

Q. 'In what way, and at what time, did you receive this nomination?'

A. 'I do not precisely recollect the time; but I believe that I received it about seven months ago, by means of M. Lefevre, an emigrant employed in the British service.'

Q. 'You were then connected with Louis XVIII.?'

A. 'It was through the count d'Artois that I received the said nomination; I had no direct connection with Louis XVIII.'

Q. 'Was your correspondence with d'Artois very active?'

A. 'No.'

Q. 'What was the intent of that correspondence?'

A. 'To impart to him the state of my army.'

From the interrogatory of Stofflet, it appears that he was aged forty-four years, a native of Luneville, and formerly in the military service.

We observe a curious letter of Puisaye on the resources of the insurgents; but it is too long for our purpose, and will not allow extracts.

The instructions of the marquis d'Autichamp to his son,

whom he sent into France, present a detail of the means employed by the emigrants to draw a part of their rents; for some of the stewards and tenants retained a faithful affection to their lords.

With respect to Cormatin, we are informed, that he was a self-created baron (his real name being Desotteux), and the son of a village barber in Burgundy. Contriving to form an acquaintance with the Lameths, he joined the revolutionary party; but he afterwards thought that the opposite side presented the surest path to fortune.

Botherel, one of the Vendean chiefs, in a letter to the count d'Artois, says, 'After having calculated what can be done with the small fund assigned to us, we think that only three sous a day (three halfpence) can be allowed to each soldier, and twenty sous (ten pence) to each officer. But, that we may obtain more, we will not speak a word of this to the English government.'

We now pass to the second volume, in which we find little interesting, till we reach the 537th page, where the journal of Olivier d'Argens begins. In 1792 he repaired to Ostend, and joined the emigrant regiments which *attended* the duke of Brunswick in his invasion of France.

'Aug. 29. From Statbredimus to Rouffy, by Rodemaker, a small fortified town. This was the day of our entrance into France. When we began our march, the greatest joy appeared in our countenances. We were all, or almost all, persuaded that we were about to march directly to Paris; that all obstacles would be easily removed; that the troops of the line only waited for our appearance, as well as the brave royalists in the interior, particularly in Bretagne, in order to join us in our march. The very day of our entrance into Paris was even fixed.'

The emigrants were so far in the rear, that they seem to have been strangers to the decisive events. Nothing of moment afterwards occurs in the journal of d'Argens till

'Oct. 4, at Mogeville: the 6th, we were near the village of Dieppe, where we remained from nine in the morning till three in the afternoon, waiting for orders to proceed to Verdun, and fight against the patriots. General Clerfayt demanded us from the king of Prussia, who refused him this last resource, saying, he would not expose such brave fellows as the emigrants were. The general had before requested the use of the Prussian artillery, as he had not a sufficient quantity; and, on the king's refusal, he desired that he would merely put his army in array of battle, and then leave the Austrians to engage the patriots. This also was refused; and

Clerfayt was obliged to recoil, and even to fight as he retreated; for the patriots did not cease to pursue him; but they spared the Prussians, their good friends.

‘ The 10th, from Mogeville to Foamé: during this march it was announced to us that we were decidedly retiring from the French territory. The 13th, at Granville; whence, on the 14th, we proceeded under the walls of Longwy. We stopped for a quarter of an hour near the gate leading to the high road to Luxembourg. After this short repose, we resumed our march; and, a quarter of a league farther, with deep regret, left the French territory, to go to Muffon, where we stopped.

‘ In the same degree as our entrance into France had been joyous and noisy, our exit was melancholy and deplorable. Consternation and sorrow were depicted on every countenance. Murmurs, bitter complaints, invectives, burst forth against the king of Prussia and the duke of Brunswick, who had promised to give battle to the patriots on the 27th or 28th of September, some days before we left Verdun, after the Austrian commanders, particularly Clerfayt, as well as our French princes and generals, had urged in strong terms the necessity of a battle, and the infallible success that would attend it, and likewise the inevitable perpetuation of the troubles of France, and her incalculable misfortunes, if a battle should not take place. We talked of the conferences which Brunswick held with Dumouriez; of the cries, “ Long live the king of Prussia! Brunswick! the Prussians, and the nation!” which had been heard in the patriot army after these conferences; of the sums of money which Dumouriez had sent, or promised, to the Prussian king; and of the flattering hope which had been holden out to Brunswick that he should ascend the throne of France, in order that he might sell himself and his troops, as his father had done.’

In the code of laws, by which the government of La Vendée was administered during the commotions, we find nothing particularly striking. We read of a military council, a commissary general, divisionary inspectors, &c. At the end is an ample index.

Traité de la Gonorrhée et des Maladies des Voies Urinaires, avec un Recueil d'Observations Analogues, par F. Teytaud, Chirurgien. Troisième Edition. Paris. 1798.

A Treatise of the Gonorrhœa, and of the Diseases of the Urinary Passages, with Analogous Observations. 8vo. 7s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THE rapidity with which this treatise has reached a third edition seems to favour the idea of its merit. Destined, in our

situation, sometimes to direct the opinion of the public, on other occasions we can only confirm or oppose it. The latter is our present duty; for, after careful attention, we find the merit of the performance very unequal to that of many works in our own or the French language; and, from our experience, we are obliged to pronounce some of the principal parts of the practice either inadequate or injurious.

In the introduction, M. Teytaud considers the origin of the venereal disease, which, in his opinion, is attributed to America without just grounds. This conclusion we have had occasion to examine and support; but the arguments of the present writer do not add to the evidence. Medicine, he remarks, was useless in this disorder, until Berenger de Carpi employed mercury.

‘It is a received opinion, capable of demonstration at this time, that the venereal virus coagulates and inspissates the fluids, retards their motion, particularly in the glands, and, by its acrimony, irritates and inflames them: the inflammation may be followed by suppuration, induration and gangrene. As mercury can prevent these consequences, we may conclude that it is attenuating and incisive, and consequently capable of clearing the obstructed organs, provided the obstructing cause be not so much compacted, as to offer a greater degree of resistance than the sides of the containing vessels.’

We have extracted this reasoning, which will not be thought conclusive in the latter part of the 18th century, as, on these principles, our author explains the action of sudorifics, the ‘aperitive, attenuating and nitrous plants,’ and even opium. But, though these medicines succeed with syphilis, they are not equally effectual in gonorrhœa, a disease which M. Teytaud considers, with many of our elder practitioners, as the same with syphilis, and as often arising from a suppression of the local discharge. On this subject also, his arguments are not cogent.

The consequences of gonorrhœa are our author's chief objects, particularly in the diseases of the urethra; and, in his introduction, he traces the use of bougies, and their various substitutes, from the time of Ambrose Paré. He gives the preference to bougies, and, of course, to his own. He denies that they act mechanically, and recommends in different cases two kinds—the suppurative, which also destroy caruncles, and the deterfive. He sometimes employs bougies of a more solid consistence, which he calls *sondes bougies*. These are made of elastic gum, with a stratum of the bougie composition; they are perforated, to allow the passage of the urine, and may be worn for many days successively.

A description of the sexual male organs and urinary passages, and a physiological account of their functions, are after-

wards given. The disease is next noticed; and its subdivisions are uselessly numerous. Its seat, our author thinks, is in that part of the urethra where the canal begins to enlarge; but this opinion is improbable. The first impressions of virus are, he imagines, on the fossa navicularis. In the cure, his first plan is of the mild antiphlogistic kind, with mucilaginous injections. Bleeding and purgatives are employed in the more violent cases. When the complaint has continued about two months, he employs bougies. When the gonorrhœa becomes chronic, he thinks mercurials useless.

We cannot follow M. Teytaud in his enumeration of the different kinds of chronic gonorrhœa. In strictness of speech, there is one species only, proceeding from a relaxation of the glands of the urethra; the others are symptoms of different diseases. Indeed our author's principal remedy, the bougie, is chiefly adapted to tumours and ulcers in the urethra, and only perhaps, as an irritating body, to the real cause of chronic gonorrhœa, relaxation of the glands. The receipts for each kind of bougie are given. Those of the suppurative kind contain some sedative and deobstruent vegetables, particularly hemlock boiled in oil; but the parts which ought to be efficacious are covered with so much wax, and with plaisters of so many different kinds, that their utility is greatly diminished. Some turpentine and fixed alkali are at last added, which may render them, on the whole, stimulant. The deterfive and desiccative bougies are still farther loaded with wax, with the addition of sperma-ceti, white lead, and Venice turpentine, in trifling and useless proportions.

This writer thinks, that the hernia humoralis may, in some instances, be venereal; but it is certainly very seldom so. As it comes on in consequence of the suppression of a gonorrhœal discharge, irritating bougies may, in his opinion, be useful in restoring it. His bougies, however, will irritate very slightly except from mechanical distension.

The disease, as occurring in females, is considered at some length; but we cannot extract from this part a single remark of importance; nor does it contain any essential error. The distinction between gonorrhœa and leucorrhœa, is examined with a tiresome diffuseness, and loaded with such numerous diagnostic marks as to confuse rather than instruct the young practitioner.

The most valuable part of the work relates to the diseases of the urinary organs, particularly the difficulty of discharging the urine, in consequence of a previous inflammation of the urethra. From the causes of stranguy, M. Teytaud excludes fungous carnosities.

‘ We must conclude, from the anatomical observations which I have myself made, and those of the most exact dissectors, that to attribute stranguy to a cause so equivocal, is

an insult to ourselves and the public. It is to bad or irregular cicatrices, to hard and callous ulcers, either with or without a discharge, to a varicous enlargement of the spongy substance of the urethra, to a scirrhus of the prostate or other glands, or to a lymphatic swelling of these glands or their ducts, that we must attribute a permanent contraction of the urethra. It has been also said, that an inflammation of the testicles may produce strangury; but I consider this as a very rare cause.'

'These (contractions) are sometimes situated in the fossa navicularis, sometimes at about two fingers' breadth below. Sometimes they occupy two or three parts of the canal, resisting more in some points than in others. I have often found them near the bulb, and on the verumontanum: these have often occasioned much difficulty, and compelled me to have recourse to the catheter, however difficult the operation was. But I have always found them more unmanageable, in proportion to their vicinity to the prostate gland, particularly when they render it scirrhus.'

The bougie is the remedy for all these complaints; and our author's management of it is the most useful part of the work. It must, however, be read in his own words.

The formulæ which are subjoined deserve little commendation, as they are in general trifling, and are overloaded with useless ingredients. It ought to be added, that thirty-four cases are given in the volume.

Mémoires Politiques et Militaires, pour servir à l'Histoire secrète de la Révolution Française, &c. Paris. 1799.

Political and military Memoirs, illustrating the secret History of the French Revolution; derived from manuscript Memoirs of several Generals, Commanders of Towns, Spies, and secret Agents in France and other Countries. 2 Vols. 8vo, 10s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS is an amusing and interesting work; but we should have perused it with more confidence and satisfaction, if the sources had been more clearly indicated. As we live under the reign of political falsehood, and fanaticism is found in all parties, a lover of truth cannot be too much on his guard against anonymous information; and the compiler of this work has thought proper to conceal his name. Such being the case, it is scarcely necessary to warn our readers, that our extracts from this work are rather intended to variegate our pages, than to assume the solemn character of historical facts.

The author affirms, that he has published from the very hand-writing of the actors, or from articles dictated by them;

and that he has even made expensive journeys, in order to illustrate great events. All this is easily said.

The first article is dated 1788, and is entitled 'Curious Dinner of Orleans with the ex-minister Narbonne.'

'There are two men (says this writer) whom an opinion almost universal has loaded with the chief guilt of the revolutionary crimes; namely, Robespierre and Orleans: and it is chiefly to their agents, to their friends, to their accomplices, that they are indebted for this monstrous celebrity. But with regard to them, as well as Louis XVI. we are ignorant of many particularities, necessary to form a more decisive judgment. An anecdote of this kind, relative to the duke of Orleans, has reached us; and we cannot doubt its authenticity.

'Towards the end of August, 1788, Orleans went to Metz, to review the regiment of hussars, of which he was colonel, and at the same time to visit the masons' lodge in that town. He dined at Narbonne's house with Durand-Dumesnil, colonel of that regiment, and with Biron. After the repast quantities of punch were imbibed; and the fire of that liquor soon favoured the explosion of secrets. "Do you believe," said Orleans eagerly, "that I can ever pardon that royal hog, for banishing me from his court, and stigmatising me, in the presence of his courtiers, as a drunkard and a glutton?"

'Biron then spoke: "And do you think that I can ever pardon the descendant of the assassin of my grandfather?"

"Do you believe," cried Narbonne, "that I can with cold blood see my mother exiled, for having given the best advice to the king? Do you believe that I will not support with all my strength the part that we must take?"

"Do you doubt, my prince," said Dumesnil, "that, while I remain colonel of your regiment, I shall ever hesitate to obey your orders?"

'This conversation was dictated to us by the general of a division now at Paris, who was present on the occasion, Narbonne having desired him to remain in the apartment.'

This may be true; but certainly nothing can have more of the dramatic air of fabrication.

In the next article we are informed that Narbonne was born in 1756, being the son of Louis XV. by his own daughter Adelaide! In support of this disgusting tale, the author proceeds to remark, that the birth of Narbonne was reported to have been at Milan, while the French troops were in Piedmont; that general Narbonne was so good as to pass for the father; that Adelaide supplied her son with large sums of money, especially during the encampment at Metz, where he gave an extravagant festival; and it was observed that the plate bore the arms of France, being that of his mother.

Adelaide, opposing La Polignac, was obliged to leave the court, and shut herself up in St. Cyr. This retreat irritated her son against its authors.

In the progress of the memoirs, the writer pretends to communicate the secret articles of the treaty of Pilnitz, formed by the emperor and the kings of Prussia, Great Britain, Spain, Naples, and Sardinia. 'It was stipulated,' he says, '1. That all republics should be abolished, even that of the United States of America, which should return under the English dominion: 2. That the German princes, and all powers of the second and third order, should be despoiled and degraded: 3. That Europe should be divided into six powerful states; but that France should be annihilated.' This statement is surely self-contradictory; for what were Naples and Sardinia but powers of the second order? We here find the wise reasoning of Barruel and Robison, who make societies, full of nobles and clergy, conspirators against nobles and clergy!

The stoppage of the king at Varennes is related at great length, and with probable circumstances. On arriving at Clermont,

'The appearance of the persons in the carriage was this. The king had the air of a weary traveller; his features were not changed, and he appeared resigned to what might happen. The queen was in very ill humour, darted haughty glances, and said nothing. Elizabeth was inflamed with anger; and upon her face were painted the different passions of her heart. The two children, looking out at the door of the carriage, smiled to every body. The dauphin had a kind of handkerchief on his head; and when he complained of it, as incommoding him by its heat, Elizabeth took it off without looking round, that she might avoid the eyes of the multitude.'

The extortion of the French commissaries equaled or surpassed that of the former robbers of the public.

'A French general officer, now a member of the legislative body*, was buying some cotton cloth, in 1792, at a mercer's shop in Liege: while he was bargaining with two young female citizens, their father entered, and said, "The bargain is concluded; and I shall gain little. Each musquet is to be 17 livres; and the shoes are to be 4 livres 10 sous a pair. The signatures of the representatives are alone requisite." In the evening this officer was with Dumouriez, with whom were also Lacroix and Danton. The mercer made his appearance; the paper was signed, and put on the chimney-piece. On looking at it, the officer found each musquet

* We suspect Fregeville.

charged at 29 livres instead of 17, and the shoes at 7 livres 10 sous.'

It appears that the civil list of Louis XVI. in 1792, was chiefly employed in corruption. Mallet du Pan had six thousand franks for a counter-revolutionary journey. Court journals, hand-bills, spies, legislators (Mirabeau had thirty thousand franks a month), absorbed a prodigious sum. The author absolves Luckner, as no way connected with the court, and the mere victim of foreign intrigue.

The errors which occasioned the disgraceful retreat of the duke of Brunswick, are thus pointed out by our author. The first was his neglecting to take possession of the ridge of Bienne, between St. Menchoud and Clermont, the most essential position for his advance. Dumouriez availed himself of this gross error, and sent Dillon with 8000 men to seize this post, which was soon fortified with cannon, so that 25,000 men would perhaps have fallen in the attack, which Brunswick did not attempt.

'All the experienced officers in the French army then perceived that Brunswick fell far short of his reputation. A general said aloud, "If I had committed so gross a fault, I would request a court-martial, and would rather die than survive to clear a charge of want of common skill." The same officer, now a member of the legislature, communicated to us the preceding observations and details.'

The duke's second error is said to have been his conduct at the conflict near Valmi, on the 20th of September. At ten o'clock the action became general. Kellerman was on the right of the mill of Valmi; and the Prussian cavalry were arranged in three columns, near the road to Chalons. But such was Brunswick's want of skill, that, when the charge was sounded, the two first columns floundered into the marshes, near the castle. The generals of the coalition, 'without having ascertained local circumstances, without even maps or guides, had arranged their three columns in two positions, which the two first columns could not leave, without plunging into marshes.'

After this affair, if we credit our author, Dumouriez might easily have captured the king of Prussia, and all his army, in the camp of Lune, by cutting off his supplies from Verdun. On the 23d the troops were so ignorant of the capitulation, signed by the king of Prussia and Dumouriez on the 21st, that another battle was expected, when dispositions were made by Dumouriez to favour the retreat of the Prussians.

The articles of this capitulation our author pretends to re-

port, from the testimony of a general officer:—1. That the king of Prussia, on evacuating the French territory, should abandon the coalition; 2. That the son of the duke of Orleans should be placed on the throne; 3. That Dumouriez should be gratified with the sovereignty of Belgium, under the title of duke of Brabant. The writer justly avails himself of Clery's journal to deny that any letter was sent by Louis XVI. to the king of Prussia; and he affirms that nothing but a great object of self-interest could have induced Dumouriez to spare the Prussians, half of whom had been destroyed by famine and contagious malady.

* Nothing could be more horrible than the spectacle presented by the camp of Lune, after the retreat of the king of Prussia: our statement is derived from the commandant of the grenadiers who went to take possession. At some distance a pestiferous exhalation was felt: at every step were found carcases of men, women, horses, left where they had fallen through inanition or sickness; for the unwholesome food, to which necessity had reduced them, had caused a dysentery, which swept off thousands in a day. All that came from them seemed fire; no places were allotted to evacuation; the country was covered with infectious matter, the exhalations of which occasioned greater ravages than the dysentery itself; and the Prussians found their most cruel enemies in the carcases of their brethren. Our grenadiers would all have perished, if they had remained there twenty-four hours. The pestilence was so obdurate, that, three months after the camp had been raised, the administrators of the department, to stop its ravages, and accelerate the destruction of the carcases, demanded pecuniary succours from the convention, in order that ditches might be dug, and quicklime procured. The assembly granted forty-five thousand livres.'

We shall pass several curious and interesting topics, after repeating our wish that they had been more precisely authenticated, and observe, that women were employed in the armies, secretly to superintend the conduct of both generals and representatives. The native compassion of the sex, arising partly from a sense of their own weakness and peculiar sufferings, contributed to save many who would otherwise have fallen victims.

Our author asserts, that Dumouriez disgusted his army, and ruined his scheme of counter-revolution, by appearing surrounded with the dragoons of the prince de Saxe-Cobourg.

The sufferings of the French prisoners in the hospital of Pest, in Hungary, furnish several interesting pages: but we can scarcely give credit to the following passage.

Among the prisoners brought to Hungary were about five thousand sick, whose sole nourishment was restricted to three prunes a day. These wretches died by hundreds. But, this kind of death appearing to their conductor too mild and slow, he ordered the three vessels, in which they were, to be sunk in passing the mills, which abound about half a league from Vienna.

Other circumstances still more atrocious are mentioned; and more certain evidence is required before we can believe that any government can excite such fiend-like enmity. Pagans would shudder; and if such be the charity of Christians, of what consequence is their faith?

Speaking of the affair of Dunkirk, our author says, that the duke of York was securely encamped at Honscotte; and that the gens d'armes were obliged to wade, for half a league, up to the belt in water, before they could make the attack. A great part of the English artillery, 150 barrels of powder, and a quantity of baggage, were fruits of the victory. Houchard, by this account, was justly condemned, as he passed three days in utter inaction, when he might have captured the whole English force, which had no retreat, except by Furnes, a retreat easily cut off.

The second volume begins with details concerning the war between France and Spain. We may observe in general that this volume is not so interesting as the former; and our remarks and extracts will therefore be more concise.

Referring to the war of La Vendée, our narrator instances the burning of the suburbs of Nantes as a dreadful proof of republican excess. Three leagues around, nothing was seen but one general conflagration. Charette boasted that this useless act of cruelty had brought an addition of twenty thousand men to his army. Cruelty is always bad policy, and seldom fails to produce the very effect which it was intended to obviate.

It is not without foundation that the war of La Vendée has been regarded as the most extraordinary which history has recorded. It was said, in classic fable, that the earth produced armies; but that was a poetical fiction: here the fiction was in some measure realised. The rebels had dug caves, into which they conveyed cannon, and in which they stationed considerable bodies of troops; here it was that the priests, monks, and robbers, concealed themselves; and hence they issued to assassinate travellers, and pillage convoys. They received their intelligence from men, chiefly clothed as woodmen, who mounted to the tops of trees, and by a whistle, which imitated the chant of a bird, made signals of the arrival of victims. Sometimes this bloody service was per-

formed by women who kept cows, by young shepherds, by children—for even the children were initiated in crimes.

Morbihan was chiefly invested in this manner. One cave was discovered by Dardure, an officer, full of peasants, monks, and priests in their costume. An old woman watched near the entrance, which was concealed with turf.

The infamous St. Just, it is said, was fond of laconisms. He had ordered the magistrates of Strasbourg to be arrested, and sent to Besançon and Chalons-sur-Marne. General Dieche, governor of the city, was charged with the execution of that order. 'If to-morrow morning, at one minute before eight, they be not sent off,' said St. Just to the general, 'one minute after eight thou shalt be guillotined.' The next morning he sent a card to the general, 'Dieche, it is eight o'clock.' The answer was not less laconic: 'St. Just, they are gone.'

'On the 9th of Thermidor (27th of July), between seven and eight in the evening, a hackney-coach came to the gate of the guild-hall: it stopped, and a soldier left the carriage, and went to the committee of administrators of the police. He returned immediately with three administrators in their scarfs of office: one opened the door, and instantly a wild-looking man arose, who held a white handkerchief to his mouth, and with his elbows shoved those who were about him, that he might get out first. It was Robespierre. When he had overcome the resistance, he sprang into the court: he was pale, and feeble. An hour afterwards, Henriot arrived with his cavalry, to convoy him to the *Maison Commune*.'

The English, we are informed, owed Corsica to the treason of Paoli; but 'their gluttony, their debauchery, their impositions, entailed upon them the execration of all the inhabitants.' Bravo! The rest is yet worse. A christian priest without charity, and a philosopher without candour, may be weighed together.

The author says of Buonaparte, that, fifteen months before he was appointed commander in chief, he imparted to one of the representatives a plan for the conquest of Italy. Colli, after his defeat, was heard to exclaim in a tavern at Turin, 'If I had been opposed to a man of thirty years' service!—But a child! a child!'

The following extract may amuse the reader with French ideas on recent events.

'For a long time the ministers of the British government in vain urged the Porte to enter into the coalition against the French republic. It is well known that they skilfully availed themselves of the expeditions of Buonaparte into Egypt, and still more of the destruction of our fleet near Alexandria, to

oblige the Grand Signor to declare war against us. But Pitt did not confine himself to diplomatic counsels; he rained gold, silver, and precious stones, at the Porte. His politics are different from our system.

'At the moment when, by a formal law, all kinds of English merchandise were prohibited among us, Pitt ordered from our manufacturers precious arms to combat us. In the street * * * (why not name it, citizen?) an American company ordered a sabre and a pair of pistols, garnished with diamonds, and valued at five or six millions of livres (between 2 and 300,000*l.*) This present was for the Grand Signor.'

The author continues his *authentic* tale, by adding that this donative induced the Turk to engage in the war, and led the way to the present which Nelson received; and that Pitt took this indirect step, to prevent the open knowledge that the Turk was bribed, and to deceive the English people with regard to this extravagance! Did Mr. Pitt ever attempt to conceal his liberality of expenditure?

The story of the Grand Signor and painter, our *learned* author ought to have known, is three hundred years old, instead of being, as he represents it, a tale of yesterday. The note is equally absurd; for smoking is so far from being an act of religion among the Turks, that it is of doubtful allowance; and the Grand Signor in course, as the head of their religion, never smokes.

The discussions concerning the issue of the conferences at Rastadt, and the indecision of the emperor, are now rendered unnecessary. The author speaks of the present Italian potentates, of the disposition of the Hungarians to liberty, of the Austrian terror at the French arms, of the Bavarian succession, &c. but he forgets the main springs—the French usurpations in Italy and Switzerland, which threatened Austria with danger. If the leaders of the republic wish for peace, they ought at least to have offered the emperor a share in their acquisitions; but, strangers to moderation, they seem to pride themselves in creating enemies; and, by their conduct towards the Americans and the Swiss, they have alienated the minds of the warmest lovers of freedom. A caricature might well represent England holding forth a purse, with the words, 'I want friends;' and France a sabre, 'I want enemies.' As the French are fond of Greek examples and apophthegms, it is strange that they should forget the saying of the Spartan king, 'My power is more limited, but it is more lasting:' or that of the Macedonian general, 'My son, make thyself less.'

After the preceding extracts, we need scarcely add, that this work contains many curious and important historical gleanings, concerning the most stupendous event in the annals of

man ; but much judgment, we think, will be requisite in separating the true diamonds from the false.

Voyages sur les Alpes.

Travels over the Alps, by M. de Saussure. (Continued from Vol. XXIII. New Arr. p. 516.)

SOON after we last attended to the instructive pages of this able naturalist, the unpleasing intelligence of his death arrived. The hand of fate stopped his course, at a time when much might have been expected from his talents and his industry. This event, while it induces us to pass more slowly over pages which, unless there should be some posthumous pieces, will be the last, gives occasion for the introduction of a sketch of the events of his life, chiefly drawn from the *Decade Philosophique*, a respectable journal.

M. de Saussure was born in 1740 ; and, by a course of hardy activity, he laid the foundation of that robust health, which enabled him to bear the greatest fatigues. Botany was his earliest study, derived perhaps from the encouragement and example of Bonnet, who married his aunt. At the age of twenty he published some minute observations on the epidermis of the leaves of plants, and the glands immediately subjacent. He had scarcely reached his 21st year, when he was appointed professor of philosophy at Geneva, to give alternate courses of physics and logic with the professor of the latter science. In each he excelled ; and some of the best philosophers of Switzerland were at this time his pupils. By their means, his fame had reached this country so early as 1769 ; and the disputants, in the Edinburgh societies, often felt their inferiority in close reasoning to the *élèves* of the young Saussure.

Experimental philosophy was his chief delight. This led him to the examination of the phænomena of nature on the highest mountains of Switzerland ; and, from frequently exploring these, he was insensibly led to examine their internal structure. In this way he became a mineralogist and a chemist. His excursions in Switzerland were numerous, extending on one side to the Rhine, and on the other to Piedmont. He also visited France, Holland, England, Italy and Sicily, not with the trifling curiosity of a common traveller, but as a careful and attentive naturalist. In 1779, he published the first volume of his *Travels on the Alps*, and, in 1783, his *Essays on Hygrometry* ; works which we examined with great care, particularly the *Essays*, as they occasioned a dispute between him and M. de Luc, in which the professor had evi-

dently the advantage, though the hygrometer had not reached its expected perfection from his hands.

In 1786, Sauffure resigned his professorship to Pictet, since advantageously known by a *Treatise on Fire*, and some valuable *Memoirs* in the *Journal de Physique*. We suspect, that the office was resigned in disgust, on the rejection of his improved plan of education, which certainly deserved attention, if, to this, the merits of his sons and his daughter are to be attributed. The daughter, madame Necker, added to the usual accomplishments of her sex an extensive knowledge of philosophy and natural history; and the eldest son has already distinguished himself as a chemist and philosopher.

The second volume of his *Travels* appeared in 1786, and was particularly interesting from the scenes described, and the various philosophical experiments related in it. He founded the Society of Arts, which augmented the industry and sharpened the ingenuity of the artists of Geneva, before celebrated through Europe, for the variety of their works, and the neatness of their workmanship. On the revolution in that city, he became a member of the council of 200; and to his exertions in this assembly, a paralytic stroke, which he experienced at the age of 54, is to be attributed. The powers of his mind, however, continued unimpaired. He prepared for the press the two last volumes of his *Travels*, and published them in 1796; and he communicated to the *Journal de Physique* some observations on the fusibility of stones by the blow-pipe, and some proposed experiments for ascertaining the height of the bed of the Arve.

He repaired to the baths of Plombieres for the recovery of his health, and hoped to be able to fulfill the duties of the office to which he had been appointed, the professorship of experimental philosophy in the central school of Paris. But his health daily declined; and he sunk under his disease about the beginning of the present year. He had intended to terminate his literary career by the publication of his ideas respecting the primitive state of the earth. This task probably exceeded his powers; but we know from his general opinions, that the revolutions would, in his system, have rested on the agency of water, with some assistance from the expansion of elastic fluids.

M. de Sauffure's third journey was from Geneva to Lake Major; but his route was by no means a direct one. From Geneva he proceeded to Vevay, and thence to the Lake Thun. After crossing it, and coasting the northern part of the Lake of Brienz, he proceeded south-east to Meyringen, then in a more southern direction to Mount Grimsel, Obergestlen, and Formazza, visiting the glaciers of Lauteraar and Oberaar, as well as the sources of the Rhone. From Formazza he re-

paired to Duomo d'Orfola, whence he proceeded to the Borromean islands on the west of Lake Major. The north-western extremity of the lake he examined at Locarno. He returned to Formazza to reach the valley of Maggia by a route not yet described, and returned to Geneva by Mount St. Gothard, Altdorf and Lucerne. The want of a map may in this journey be supplied by that which is annexed to Mr. Coxe's Travels.

From the Lake of Geneva to that of Thun, in the Gessénay and Simmenthal, the mountains are in general secondary and calcareous. The strata, when not vertical, have their planes directed from the north-east to the south-west. As our author's geological observations were not interesting, he employed himself in examining what was called the dry mist of that year (1783); but he found it connected neither with coldness, nor with the moisture of the atmosphere.

'After a rapid ascent, we arrived at a height, where we had a sufficiently extensive prospect of the Valley of Gessénay. It is large, without being quite plain; an amphitheatre of meadows agreeably varied by innumerable houses, farms, and little unconnected barns. The mountains which surround it are divided by valleys, and varied in their forms. These also are covered with meadows, mixed with clumps of trees, and studded with farms and with houses. Above these inhabited mountains, we saw, in the most distant cliffs, only snow and rocks. It is remarkable, that, in this valley, we found no arable land, though oats, barley, rye, and flax, would succeed admirably. Here and there, indeed, near a habitation, we observed a square piece of ground sown with barley or flax, seemingly as curiosities, and not as objects of useful cultivation. The inhabitants of these mountains attend only to the business of rearing cattle and making cheese. In general, wherever lands are much divided, as in these mountains, scarcely any grain is sown, because wheat is never advantageously cultivated but on a large scale. The proprietor of a small domain is better rewarded by meadows, and the cultivation of pulse.'

The lake of Thun is four or five leagues long, and almost a league wide, in its greatest breadth. Its direction is from north-west to south-east; its depth is 350 feet, and its temperature 4° — 40° 5 Fahr. Its height is 104 toises above the lake of Geneva, and 292 above the sea. The lake of Brienz is much smaller, and its direction nearly at right angles to that of Thun. Its aspect is more savage than that of any other lake in Switzerland; for its high (calcareous) mountains descend rapidly to the water. The sides, however, are verdant, covered with herbage, and some-

times with trees. Its depth is 500 feet, and its temperature $3^{\circ} 8' - 38^{\circ} 5'$ Fahr. The mineral waters of Leensingen in its neighbourhood are hepatic, with magnesia.

The road from Brientz to Meyringen is through an extensive valley, flat and a little marshy, between mountains chiefly calcareous, with horizontal strata. There is, however, one exception in an insulated mountain about half a league from Brientz. The strata appear at first twisted; and they are soon found to be bent in a zig-zag, or in the form of an S doubled, from the top to the bottom. On examination, this form appears to have been produced by a violent shock; and these strata are sometimes found broken, where the returns were very rapid. Sometimes they are separated, seemingly scattered by an explosion; but they soon return, when traced, to their horizontal position.

The village of Meyringen is in one of the most beautiful and picturesque valleys of Switzerland. Its surrounding rocks are varied with wood and verdure, but are occasionally barren, from a descent too rapid. Its cascades are bold and striking; that of Reichenbach is well known, from the many prints and drawings of it in England. Both in this valley, and in Grindelwald, the calcareous rocks, when they approach the primitive ones, lose their horizontal position, and rise in angles of 60 and 70 degrees, against the latter. On the south and east also, the primitive strata of gneiss rest in higher angles against the calcareous rocks. This our author calls a beautiful example of those ebbs, which he considers as the general cause of the change in the direction of strata, originally horizontal.

From Guttanen to the Hospice of Grimsel, the gneiss is succeeded by granite; and, beyond the heights of Grimsel, foliated granites or gneiss recur. M. de Saussure is persuaded, that an unprejudiced observer would consider the greater part of these granites as stratified, and the strata, in general, vertical, or inclined at large angles. The direction of the planes is not however the same, though they are commonly across the valley. The strata of the others are probably not observable, on account of their thickness. The Hospice, which more nearly resembles an eastern caravansera than an hospital, is not in the highest point, though in a wild situation. It is on a plain, on the mountain surrounded by the highest pics covered with snow. Near it, is a lake, whose waters, contrasted by the snow, appear black. It is called the 'Lake of the Dead;' for all, who die in passing the mountain, are thrown into it. Those who are able, pay for their entertainment, which is not bad. The civility and good humour of the hosts are remarkable.

The glacier of Lauteraar disappointed our author's expectations. The ice was covered with the debris of the moun-

tain; and clouds concealed the Finster Aar and Schreckhorn, which over-hang it on the west and north-west. The rock which rises on the north is truly magnificent. It is a 'wall of granite, of a prodigious height; its surface undated, smooth and shining, radiated with the different colours of the lichens and conservæ, which the little rills, that glide over its surface, support.' The stones, which cover the ice, are the debris of the mountains, granites and granitellos of almost every variety. The Aar trickles up from the ice, instead of emerging, like the Arveiron, from a glassy arch.

'The most curious objects, in the view of our naturalist, were stones covered with hair, or shining silk, projecting in straight lines, of a deep brown. They form a kind of thick velvet, the pile of which, with a strong magnifier, appears transparent, of a brown colour; the larger hairs are seemingly fluted, or striated, probably from their being composed of smaller ones; for the smallest have no such structure: these are, at most, $\frac{1}{100}$ part of a line in diameter. I have not been able to distinguish their form, but have observed, that each is cut off by a plane, perpendicular to its axis. They have no distinguishable articulations, but are straight and smooth, from one end to the other. With the blow-pipe they melt easily, without bubbling, into a dark-brown brilliant enamel, strongly magnetic.'

This fossil the younger Saussure analysed, and found that it was not an amianthus, but was chiefly composed of clay and flint, with about $\frac{1}{3}$ of iron. The pile may perhaps be ferruginous crystal, which we think we have seen assume this appearance. Our author visited also the grottos of crystal, which are in granitic rocks. From these grottos, some of which are 18 feet square, and others from 60 to 80 feet deep, many thousand quintals of crystal have been taken. In this place they distil a species of *aqua vitæ* from gentian, which is greatly esteemed as a febrifuge. The whole glacier is said to have been once free from ice, and highly fertile; but this tradition M. de Saussure treats with a suspicious incredulity.

Our author's continuance on the Grimsel was marked with an extraordinary circumstance. On the 11th of July, 1783, a tremendous storm of thunder and lightning threatened to desolate Geneva with its destructive violence. At Grimsel, on the contrary, the night was calm and serene; yet, on the west, in the neighbourhood of Geneva, there were some bands of clouds, in which light lambent flames, which we style summer lightning, seemed to vibrate.

In examining this glacier, our traveller ascended a mountain on the north-east, which is an important station, as it shows at one view the two glaciers of the Aar. That of Oberaar is wholly covered with snow. The ice is only visi-

ble on the eastern descent ; and the snow has few stones upon it. Oberaar means the superior source of the Aar ; and it is evidently the higher ground. The spot on which M. de Saussure stood, was 1256 toises above the level of the sea. The real pics of these high mountains were, from this station, clearly seen to be terminated by pics with sharp angles, and by bold and well discriminated forms. These, however, are connected with the direction of the strata, and the hardness of the stone ; for even calcareous mountains present the same pointed bold terminations, when the stone is very hard, and the strata are vertical ; and granitic mountains in a lower situation, and with inclined strata, have rounded heads. The stone of these mountains is a foliated granite. The chain, on the south, is schistus, in a state of decomposition.

The rocks, near the source of the Rhone, are of very different kinds, and the river sometimes runs parallel to them, and sometimes crosses them ; so that those who consider only the course of the river, and are attracted by its cascades, think the inclination of the different strata irregular. Our author examined them with the compass in his hand, and found, as usual, their direction from the north-east to the south-west.

‘ This glacier (as it is called) of the Rhone, if not the most magnificent, is the most beautiful in our regions. From the height of a mountain, crowned by over-hanging rocks, the sheet of ice descends, stuck with pyramids, varied by their size and their forms. It is then contracted to pass within two rocks ; after which it expands like a fan, and forms an immense segment of a sphere, from the summit of which, as from a centre, deep cracks of a fine blue separate and terminate in the circumference. At the base of this segment, two arches of ice appear, whence two impetuous torrents rush, which, after uniting, carry to the source of the Rhone the first tribute which it receives.

‘ In reality, these two torrents, though rushing from a higher ground, and carrying twenty times the quantity of water, are not styled the *source* of the Rhone. The inhabitants, with a kind of contempt, call them the waters of the glacier, or of the snow ; while they show with a sort of veneration, and honour, as the source of the river, a fountain which rises from the middle of a beautiful meadow. Many travellers laugh at this preference ; and the good Scheutzer turns it into ridicule, calling it a kind of madness, ἀρρωστία τῆς διανοίας, in the inhabitants of the valleys, to give the appellation of the source of the river to a little stream which joins a vast current from above.

‘ I was astonished at this singularity, and endeavoured to conjecture the cause of it, when, tasting and feeling the water, I found a sensible heat in it. I considered this as a kind of il-

lusion, when, on plunging the thermometer into it, the column rose to 14. 5.* while all the neighbouring water was scarcely above the freezing point, except one little spring, which enjoys also the honour of being deemed the source of the Rhone.'

The cause of the veneration entertained for this spring is obvious: it resists the cold of winter, and the meadow in which it rises is in perpetual verdure. This cause influences the opinion respecting the source of other rivers.

The name of the Rhone is derived, in our author's opinion, from red; the source itself being styled *Der Rothe*, from the red sediment deposited from it. The height of this warm spring is 900 toises above the Mediterranean. The water is slightly impregnated with a vitriolic neutral salt, without any mixture of an earthy salt, and with a very slight tinge of hepatic vapour. Hence M. de Saussure is inclined to believe, that the heat is occasioned by decomposed pyrites. We long since endeavoured to show that this was probably the source of the heat of all warm springs. The fountains of the Rhone contain the *conferva rivularis*, while the snow waters are barren.

From the source of the Rhone to Formazza, the journey furnishes nothing very interesting to a general reader. The elevation of the Col de Gries is 1223 toises above the level of the sea, and the temperature was at 6½ (47° Fahrenheit). The glacier did not greatly differ from the other icy regions. It represented the agitated waves, fixed by cold; and, in some parts, the smoother ice gave the appearance of harbours. Beyond these regions, some fertile detached spots offered the pleasing prospect of a milder climate; and, not far from the Val de Toccia, the larches began to show the influence of a more genial sun. The cascade of the Toccia is very beautiful, its height is from 5 to 600 feet, and the first fall is into a concave rock, resembling an immense shell. It then falls on a convex one, by which it is divided into numerous smaller jets which glide down the remaining height. From this cascade, the veined granites of Italy begin.

From Formazza, M. de Saussure proceeded to Duomo d'Ossola, and to the Boromean Islands. In his way he examined the various granites; and he endeavours to explain their exfoliation by their hardening when they are exposed to the air, while the lower part retains the softness which it possessed when in the earth. The weight above consequently produces a separation. We know that granites harden by exposure to air; but, from frequent observation in granitic countries, we think the explanation not supported by facts; for the exfoliations are often of thin laminæ, not connected with superior weight. It is probable, that granite, while in

* 65 degrees of Fahrenheit—Mr. Coxe by mistake says 55 degrees.

its softer state, admits moisture, which expands by cold, and thus separates parts of different bulks.

‘Independently of the interest with which these strata are surveyed by the geologist, in consequence of relations which it would be useless to detail in this place, they offer to the painter a superb scene. I have never seen more beautiful rocks, distributed in larger masses: in one place they are white; in another, blackened by lichens; in another, variously coloured, like the rocks of Grimsel, and mixed with trees, some of which crown the top of the mountain; others are unequally thrown on the cornices which separate the strata. Near the base of the mountain, the eye reposes on fine plantations, in meadows of a varied surface, and on magnificent chestnut-trees, whose extensive branches shade the rocks against which they grow. In general, these granites, whose strata are horizontal, render the country delightful; for, though in some places the projections are too bold, the layers are generally arranged in steps, the borders of which are covered with a charming verdure, and with trees disposed in the most picturesque manner. We may even see some mountains in the form of a sugar-loaf, surrounded and crowned, even to their summit, with garlands of trees, thus placed by intervals, on the strata.’

At St. Roche the climate of Italy more decisively begins; vines appear; the horizontal granites vanish, and micaceous schistus takes its place. About half a league from the bridge which terminates the Val de Formazza, is the gold mine of Crodo, which is not very productive. The gold seems chiefly to be contained in a ferrugineous ochre.

Near Duomo d’Ossola, the descent from the height of the Alps is considerable; for this town is thirty-six toises below the level of Geneva. On coming from it, vertical strata of foliated primitive rocks occur, which cut the valley obliquely, and correspond with those of a high mountain, situated on the opposite side; ‘a proof that strata become vertical, which were once horizontal.’

In the lake of Mergozzo the Boromean Islands are situated; and on the banks of this lake is the town of Mergozzo. No river passes through it; but the Toccia runs on the south to fall into lake Major, having high ground and sometimes considerable mountains between it and the former lake. Both, however, are united by a canal. It is remarkable that the mountains and hills consist of massy granites in this lower situation, while the neighbouring heights are composed of gneiss or foliated granite; ‘a proof,’ adds our author, ‘that the latter is not composed of the debris of the former.’ We are not inclined to acquiesce entirely in this conclusion: those who have often observed veined granites may form a different

opinion; yet the decision of M. Saussure must be regarded with respectful attention.

The beauty of Isola Bella has been much extolled; it is adorned, however, in a style not perfectly adapted to cultivated tastes. 'The rock is divided into ten stages, supported by arcades, bordered by beautiful orange-trees, covered with plantations of citrons, flanked by obelisks, and adorned with statues.' They are the hanging gardens of Semiramis, or an attempt to realise a fairy scene. The rock itself is primitive, chiefly micaceous, mixed with quartz in different forms.

As, from Formazza, our traveller reached the Val Maggia by a road little known, we will quote his description of it:

'It is one of the high valleys of the Alps, whose situation I prefer. It does not offer, like that of Chamouni, a magnificent spectacle of glaciers; but its features are softer and more pastoral. Its rocks, divided by meadows and groves, have nothing rude or savage. The valley is varied by little hamlets; and the clean white houses beautifully contrast the verdure which surrounds them; while little rocks, occasionally rising in irregular swellings, and covered with larches that have thick foliage, seem to be sacred woods, in the midst of which we may imagine an altar or a statue *.'

In his new track, M. Saussure passed through the Furca del Bosco. The highest part of it was 1202 toises; the thermometer was at $10^{\circ} 6$ (56° Fahr.), and the hygrometer at near 90° . The rocks were granitic; and he could here see the pics of mountains, whose bases he had before examined. He thus found that, in proportion to the height, the grains of the granite were more fine and less hard, and the strata thinner; facts which, in his opinion, as important consequences were deducible from them, compensated the labour of the journey. The whole track was gloomy and dreary in a high degree.

Though our author's tour is not completed, the termination of the third volume reminds us of the length of our article, and the necessity of a pause. Mount St. Gothard is too important an object to be noticed in a cursory manner.

* 'These groupes of trees, irregularly sown by nature on rocks scattered in a valley, have not the heaviness and monotony of those *massy* plantations in the English gardens (clumps), which Mr. Uvedale Price has ridiculed with so much spirit and originality in his charming work, 'An Essay on the Picturesque.' We doubt whether M. de Saussure ever saw the *modern* English plantations. His ideas are taken from those which he saw in his visit many years ago.

Nouveau Tableau Speculatif de l'Europe, par le General Dnmouriez. Sept. 1798.

A new Speculative Picture of Europe. 8vo. 6s. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THE nations of Europe again pass in review before the discarded general; and he points out to each the conduct which he thinks ought to be adopted in these critical times. His chief object is to show, that there ought to be a general confederacy against the French, not with a view of destroying their government, or dividing their country amongst the allies, but for the purpose of repressing their inordinate ambition, and preventing the propagation of those principles which tend to the overthrow of every monarchical constitution. It is easy to form a plan in the closet, and to make the parts correspond with each other; but the history of this war suggests a different idea of the effects of great coalitions. The confederates are to act together to effect one single purpose; and, that being attained, they are to withdraw their troops, each contented with the glory acquired, and the common enemy is to be left to profit by the chastisement which he has received. All this is Utopian. Leagues cannot be thus formed, till the nature of man shall be materially altered. Those who draw the sword to repress a foe, will, when he is disarmed, proceed to the usual exercise of power; and, as the fear of such exercise of power inspired the French with that energy by which they defeated the first confederacy against them, the same energy is likely to subsist till their government shall be acknowledged by their neighbours. The real effects of the new system may then be discovered.

The general avows himself a friend to monarchical government in France; but his monarchy is too different from that which has been subverted, to please the emigrants; and he would leave too much power to the monarch for those who have imbibed the new principles. Thus his views of reform cannot be acceptable to a sufficient number to afford him any prospect of success. His reprobation of many measures pursued by the royalists, or the supporters of their cause, will displease the aristocrats; and the violence of his language against the new principles will render him obnoxious to the democrats.

But, if the publication of his sentiments will produce little effect in the present ferment, the reflections of a distinguished general and politician, on public affairs, cannot fail to be frequently interesting. We naturally look in this respect to his remarks on our own country; and his observations on naval expeditions deserve attention.

'The English (he says) seem to commit many faults; and, when their plans of attack depend on a combination of force by sea and land, they are almost always badly formed, or badly executed. We might point out the expeditions to Ostend, Porto Rico, St. Domingo, Teneriffe, and the Moluccas. As the most obvious one, let us examine the first. It is always a proof of want of skill to undertake an inferior with the means of attaining a superior object. General Coote's flotilla was strong enough to attack the isle of Walcheren, and perhaps, with the aid of the Zealanders and the stadtholderian party, to dispossess the French of Flushing. The destruction of the sluices at Ostend was a more dangerous and uncertain undertaking, incapable of producing any advantage as to the issue of the war, and detrimental only to the inhabitants of the country, whose interests should be consulted as much as possible. The vicinity of Dunkirk, if the weather had been more favourable, must have prevented the complete success of this expedition; an expedition odious in itself, and tending to no good end whatever. The check which the English troops received on this occasion was more prejudicial to the reputation of their arms than from the mere loss of men; and the English government seems to have wished to give the directory its revenge for the attack on the isle of St. Marcou.'

We need not be surprised at the success of the French arms in Italy, when we read the following description of the inhabitants of that country, which is traced with a masterly hand.

'Except liberty, the Italians were in possession of every enjoyment. The people were divided into three classes—that of the nobles, who were idlers, and who wearied themselves with frivolous pleasures, with luxurious and wretched splendor, with formality and titles—that of the bourgeois or citizens, who were servilely employed in the mechanic arts, and who humbled themselves before nobles whom they secretly ridiculed and despised—that of the farmers, who alone were elevated almost to the rank of freemen, although they were exposed by their rude simplicity to the derision and contempt of the bourgeois, and were also objects of the tyranny of the nobles, of whom they avenged themselves by tardy payments, and by keeping for themselves the better part of their produce. As soon as a bourgeois by industry and commerce, or a farmer by labour or the ruin of his landlord, had acquired a competence, the first object of each was to quit his class; and purchasing a patent of nobility from the petty sovereigns of Italy, he from that instant thought himself entitled to the privilege of idleness.

‘ With such characters, with such habitual indolence, the revolutionary spirit could not originate in Italy: every idea of the majesty of the people was totally effaced or destroyed by the strange division of small sovereignties; but no country was better adapted for the propagation of this opinion, because in no other part had the people formerly possessed greater dignity or majesty. It was only necessary to rouse them from their long slumber, and to recall to their view their ancient state.

‘ Till the French revolution had made its way over the Alps, the Italians, little accustomed to the perusal of the public papers, in general partial and unfaithful, and never meeting in political societies, because they were prohibited by the government, looked upon the French as so many madmen, whom their imperial and royal majesties would soon annihilate. The reserve and apathy of the Italians gained fresh strength: accustomed to enjoyments and to slavery, they kept themselves upon their guard against the epidemical disorder which might trouble their repose.

‘ But when they saw the king of Prussia compelled to make peace with the French republic, the landgrave of Hesse, then Saxony and Suabia, separating from the German league, Spain giving up the revenge of the head of its house, and the interests of that unfortunate branch, to unite with France against England, the defender of the Alps brought under the yoke of the conqueror, Holland subdued and revolutionised, the Austrians driven out of the Milanese with facility—when they saw all these triumphs accumulate on a nation, of which before they had an indifferent opinion—the reflecting character of the Italians necessarily led them to attribute to the cause of liberty that exalted energy which renders the nation inflamed by it invincible. From this reflection to the rise of popular ambition there was merely a single step.’

In this manner the general considers every nation; and his conclusion is a prediction of war, the issue of which is uncertain, and not to be estimated by the accustomed rules of policy and reasoning. On the beginning of the war his remarks are certainly well founded.

‘ The war (he says) which many of the powers of Europe undertook against France, at the beginning of the revolution, was unjust, imprudent, impolitic. If the arms of the coalesced powers had succeeded, and the unfortunate Louis XVI. had reascended the throne, he would for the rebellion of his subjects have been punished by his allies, who had determined on the partition of his frontiers. In that horrid war every thing was badly estimated, even the particular interest of each power. Philosophy, justice, humanity, then offered their vows for the French nation. If it had fallen, liberty would

have been banished from the face of the earth: despotism would not have permitted the liberty even of thought to exist.'

The success of the French brought with it its usual attendant, a despotism as dangerous as that which they were resisting; and against this despotism a war of extermination, according to this writer, must be universally proclaimed.

'It necessarily follows (he says), from the concatenation of circumstances, that the fate of Europe depends more than ever on the chances of war, which will accelerate the arrangement settled by the unknown decrees of providence, confounding the wise, and electrifying the weak or the mad, for the production of unexpected results, which, though conformable to general order, will to feeble mortals be ever incomprehensible.'

The last prediction is countenanced by the present state of affairs; and if the nations of Europe learn to submit to the decrees of providence, the general may be esteemed a good preacher.

Emilie et Alphonse, ou Danger de se livrer a ses premières Impressions. Par l'Auteur d'Adele de Senange. Hambourg. 1799.

Emilia and Alphonso, or the Danger of yielding to first Impressions. By the Author of Adele de Senange. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

IN the first volumes of this tale there is little to excite curiosity. Emilia is constrained by a fond but ill-judging mother to marry a man whom she dislikes, and who consequently renders her unhappy. The distress of Emilia, the refuge which she seeks in fashionable gaiety, and the snares from which she escapes unpolluted, but not unsuspected, though well narrated, feebly interest the reader. But the story of Alphonso displays superior power, and agitates even to pain.

Alphonso is the son of a Spanish duke. His uncle, by marrying a woman of inferior rank, had displeased his family; and Alphonso had been taught to despise him as a man disgraced. After a long residence in France, the uncle returns to Madrid: Alphonso visits him, and condescends to behave with cold civility; but he sees Camilla, and his prejudice against his uncle yields to love for his cousin. His heart and hand are pledged, when the duke commands him to marry a lady of the name of Eleonora. He endeavours to excite disgust in the latter: distant, chilling, even rude, he displeases

her by his behaviour ; and he overhears her saying to a friend that she never could be happy with him. ‘ My soul,’ said she, ‘ feels the necessity of loving, and of being loved. If he had not manifested so great an estrangement, I might perhaps have ventured to speak to him ; but he forbids it. My father too refuses to hear me ; he treats mutual affection as a chimera, and the feelings of the heart as follies ; and assures me that there is not a word of all this in the contract.’

‘ In entering the saloon, I found Eleonora endeavouring to snatch from her friend a seal which had been taken from her. I interfered in the innocent dispute, and seized the stone, on which I found this motto—*happiness or death*. Eleonora, looking downward, said, that it often required more courage to attain happiness than to die. “ Yes,” I replied ; “ but often with a slight effort we conquer fortune.” We looked earnestly at each other ; and, by an inspiration of love, I confessed to her that I had overheard her in the garden. “ Let us be sincere,” I cried ; “ perhaps we may surmount the obstacles which surround us.” Eleonora blushed, and then grew pale : she could not persuade herself that I had overheard her. “ What,” said I—“ have you not said that you never could be happy with me ?” She sighed. I led her with her friend to a distant room. There I entreated her to open her heart to me ; but, far from finding there a feeling which could excuse me, I discovered a prepossession in my favour which astonished me, and which perhaps she did not know herself ; a sweetness which softened me. She told me ingenuously that my coldness and melancholy had persuaded her that I should marry her against my inclination : “ then,” she added, and looked downward, “ then I said, that I never could be happy.” This confession, so opposite to what I expected, confounded me ; we were both long silent ; at length I asked her if she would be my friend ; she consented with a sorrowful look. Does then the most ingenuous woman divine that the lover who pronounces the name of friend is about to pierce her heart ? I took her hand, and that of her companion ; and, after making them swear to keep my secret faithfully, I confessed every thing to them, but without naming Camilla, or saying any thing that might point her out. I felt myself affected, when, in describing my love for Camilla, I saw Eleonora troubled, and observed her stifling her respiration, lest I should hear her sigh. Ah ! he who really feels love can never be pleased with inspiring a passion of which he does not partake.’

Camilla, a woman of strong and ungoverned feelings, becomes jealous of Eleonora. She proposes a private marriage to Alphonso, and they are united.

‘ In becoming the husband of Camilla, I had attained the summit of what lately seemed my most ardent desires; and yet I was oppressed by an unconquerable melancholy. What will you say of my feeble heart, when you hear that I was haunted with the recollection of Eleonora? I saw her sweet affliction. I know not what enchanting sentiment attracted me towards her; but it is certain that her grief affected me more than my own satisfaction. I found myself between Camilla, who had first made me feel love, who had developed in me all my passions, and Eleonora, who with a look calmed the tumult that her rival had excited.

‘ I went to this tender friend; I fell at her feet; and, hiding my face upon her hands, “Eleonora,” I cried, “do not abandon me! never was your friendship so necessary. In pity, in generosity, suffer me to be with you! If you do not guide me, I shall become the curse of Camilla, your curse, my own, the curse of all connected with me. I am married.” “Married!” said Eleonora, raising her eyes to heaven!—“Yes—yes—married, without the consent of my father, even without having attempted to obtain it.” She wept upon me, but did not thrust me from her. I was still on my knees by her, when her father and mine entered the room. I rose instantly.—“Remain where you are,” cried my father laughingly; “beautiful Eleonora, I place myself by him; deign to consent to enter a family which devotes itself to your happiness.” Eleonora, with a goodness which still penetrates my heart, replied, that she would never marry, and that she had just informed me of that intention. Her father would not hear her; he threatened her with his anger, with his hatred, if she did not immediately retract. I exclaimed that she was deceiving them; that it was I who would not be obedient. “You! you!” they both cried. “Why then at her feet?” continued the count: “at least you shall answer to me for that strange conduct.” She threw herself between us; she fell at her father’s knees; and, holding out her hands in supplication, conjured him to let her live with him as she had always done.—“No—the man who held your hands in his, whom I have surprised at your feet, shall be your husband: if he should refuse, his life or mine must answer.” “You decide me,” Eleonora gravely answered: “wait only till to-morrow, without inquiring into the scene that has recently passed.” “To-morrow!” said her father.—“To-morrow,” repeated mine. “To-morrow,” she replied, with a solemnity that terrified me. She added, “I also venture to beg that you will leave me alone with Alphonso.” They hesitated some time, but concluded by quitting us. As soon as they had retired, I again fell at the feet of Eleonora: all that she was suffering on my account distracted me. “To-morrow,” I said to her,

"I will fly from Madrid; and my absence will restore your tranquillity."—"No: my father would only see in your flight an injury which he would revenge. I have no courage for your danger or for his; give me time to recollect myself." She remained some moments with her eyes raised to heaven. When I attempted to speak, she laid her hand upon my lips: at last she said to me with a candour, an affection truly heavenly, "I love you with all my soul, Alphonso! I tell you so for the first and the last time; but it is necessary that you should know it." Her tears almost suffocated her; and I was perhaps more oppressed than she was. I wished to die, I wished that I had never existed. After a painful effort, Eleonora added, with deep sobs, "I was to have been your wife, and I believed myself the happiest woman upon earth. Fortune, greatness, virtues, nothing seemed too brilliant for my hopes.—I lose all, all in one day; and I regret only the loss of you. You owe me some consolation; promise me then to grant what I shall ask."—"Speak! command me!"—"Tomorrow you shall have tidings of me." This mystery, this delay, made me tremble; I had often thought of putting an end to my torments by depriving myself of life, and I feared that Eleonora would attempt hers. She quieted me on this head, but without removing the anxiety with which I was harassed. With what ardour did I entreat her to inform me of her resolutions! She always answered that they depended upon a last attempt with her father, without letting me penetrate her projects or her hopes. Till now the greatest reserve had accompanied all her actions; nor did innocence and modesty now forsake her; but, when it was necessary to separate, as though irresistibly impelled, she threw herself into my arms, and cried—"Tell me you love Camilla! tell me so, I entreat you, tell me so!"—I pressed her to my heart; she rested on it a moment—but, recovering her strength, burst from me.

The next day the following letter is received by Alphonso, with a casket of jewels.

'O, my dear Alphonso, receive the first words which I have dared to write to you—you who were to be so dear to me! Persuade Camilla to accept the diamonds, which my father gave me to ornament my person on the day when you should have led me to the altar. When you see her adorned with them, remember what Eleonora was to have been to you. How often has my heart palpitated at repeating secretly the vow which I was to pronounce! From the time when first our marriage was resolved on, my mother, and my friends and attendants, ceased not to praise you, and to talk of my happiness. My heart too easily received these deceitful impressions: I loved you before I knew you: judge whether

I have since been able to change that sentiment! Excuse me—pity me, without reproaching yourself for the vows that will soon bind me; it is my father who has driven me to them. Be you then, O my only friend, free from remorse. I thank you for having regarded me, for esteeming me, for trusting to my word, to my love, for being kind to me when you owed me nothing. When you receive this, veils and grates will separate us FOR EVER. Render not useless the sacrifice which I make to your tranquillity: I demand it of you on my knees. Respect your own happiness; it is mine; it is the only happiness which remains for me in this world. Obey me only once; and, when your father learns my retreat, shew a surprise which may blind his ambition, and restore your peace. Preserve, cherish my memory; and never let the world know for whom I have wished to live or to die! ELEONORA.'

The conclusion of the story is, as may be imagined, dreadful. Alphonso, to discover Eleonora's retreat, leaves and neglects Camilla; and he returns to her only in time to find her dying in child-bed. His future fate is connected with that of Emilia and her husband: but the rest of the work is tame and unimportant, when compared with Alphonso's narrative.

Catholic poets have usually prefaced their works with a proviso, that the miracles which they have employed are only poetical fictions. In like manner, the author of this novel informs us, that he has only given titles to his personages, in conformity to the costume of the period in which they are supposed to have lived.

Der Wunderbare, von Karl Rechlin. Lübeck.

The Wonderful Stranger, by Charles Rechlin. Small 8vo. 5s. Sewed. Imported by Escher.

THIS romance is the production of a young man, who died soon after the completion of it. The scene and the characters are Italian; and the substance of the tale is comprised in the following statement.

The work opens with the account of a festive entertainment, given at the villa of a young nobleman, named Marino, chiefly in honour of Bianca, the fair object of his attachment. This lady attends on the occasion, but does not fully partake of the mirth of the scene, as the protracted absence of her betrothed lover Hieronymo from Italy is a cause of serious alarm. In the course of the evening she meets with an old harper, who had drawn a number of persons around him: his mournful strains give her a melancholy plea-

sure ; but when he refuses, at the desire of Marino, to favour the company with a lively tune, the count draws his sword, with a seeming intention of doing him an injury : the weapon, however, breaks at the instant, and the old man makes his retreat. The same person afterwards appears in a wood, and delivers to Bianca a ring, which she had dropped from a gondola into the sea. Other wonders follow—particularly the sudden display of some writing in a garden, addressed to the lady, and the quick disappearance of it. She is desired to rewrite her last letter to Hieronymo, at whose silence she is uneasy, and then to burn it ; and an answer within a limited time is promised to her. A voice warns her, on another occasion, to avoid the society of Marino, as his aim is to deceive her. Addressing the supposed spirit, she inquires whether her lover is still in existence ; and the answer imports, that he lives, and is still attached to Bianca ; an intimation which gives her unspeakable joy. In a journey which she soon after undertakes, she meets with the prince of G—, who accompanies her in her subsequent progress. This prince proves the greatest enemy to her lover, whom he eagerly endeavours to supplant : he even bribes assassins to murder him ; but he fails in his schemes, and suffers for his treachery. Hieronymo suddenly makes his appearance, and stabs him in the presence of Bianca. Marino, who had assisted in preserving the life of his rival, desists from his vain pursuit, and is fully reconciled to him ; and Hieronymo becomes happy in the confirmed possession of Bianca.

This romance is not unpleasing, and the language is smooth and neat ; but the incidents are not very interesting ; nor do we think that the plot is well conducted.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

MANY works of considerable merit, and many trifling and superficial productions, have lately appeared in France, though few have found their way into this kingdom. In taking a cursory notice of some of these publications, we will begin with those which are of a scientific nature; and such as belong to different classes of polite literature will form a regular sequel.

Cours Élémentaire de Chymie, &c. Elementary Course of theoretic and practical Chemistry, according to the new Nomenclature, by Alyon, 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.—The author of this work is a physician and chemist of considerable reputation; and, though it is principally intended for the perusal of young students, it contains information which the more experienced reader will find interesting and useful.

Des Sciences positives, &c. A View of positive or precise Sciences, and the Means of applying them to Industry, 8vo.—M. Canolle, in this treatise, evinces a reflecting mind.

Leçons Élémentaires, &c. Elementary Lessons in Arithmetic and Algebra, by P. Tedenat, 8vo. Rhodéz.—There is little novelty in this performance; but it is clear, precise, and methodical.

Histoire Naturelle des Singes, &c. Natural History of Animals of the Ape Kind, by J. B. Audebert.—Only some parts of this work have yet been published: those are well executed, and the graphic accompaniments exhibit correct representations of the animals.

Flora Atlantica, &c. A Description of the Plants which grow on Mount Atlas, and in the Algerine and Tunifine Territories.—M. Des-Fontaines, in 1783, undertook a voyage to

Africa with botanical views. He soon found an opportunity of penetrating to a considerable distance south of Tunis, and met with many new species of plants, which he has accurately described in this work. He augmented his stores of plants in subsequent journeys, extending his rambles to the frontiers of Morocco. Various circumstances long retarded the publication of his Flora; but the cultivators of botany are now gratified with the first volume, the execution of which does credit to the author.

Histoire des Plantes vénéneuses et suspectes de la France, &c. History of those French Plants which are known to be poisonous, or are suspected of being so, by M. Bulliard.—This is the second edition of a work highly useful in the prevention or the remedy of injury from plants.

Paradoxes, &c. Curious and interesting Paradoxes in the **Œconomy of Nature.**—Among other points, the writer endeavours to prove, that, when a person dies, a fermentation of matter takes place; that the different kinds successively ascend; that thus even the intelligent faculty is conveyed into the mass of æther; and that the only difference between this state of existence and the former is the change of our mediate sensations into such as are immediate.

Philosophie du Chaud et du Froid. The Philosophy of Heat and Cold, by Peter Bellelingue. Besançon.—A confused and unphilosophical performance.

Essai sur les Fièvres, &c. Essay on Intermittent Fevers, and on the Use and Operation of febrifuge Medicines, particularly the Peruvian Bark, by Bouffey, 8vo.—This essay has obtained the favourable opinion of those who are good judges of the subject. The remarks are judicious: the nature and character of intermittents are well explained; and the use of the bark is subjected to very proper regulations.

Elémens de Myologie, &c. Elements of Myology and Syndesmology, by T. Lauth, 2 vols. 8vo.—This physician has well described the muscles and the ligaments; and his information will be found useful in the cure of the disorders by which those parts of our frame are affected.

De l'Influence, &c. A Dissertation on the Influence of the Passions in Disorders, and the Means of obviating their ill Effects.—This work proceeds from the pen of Tissot; and it may be consulted with advantage not only by medical students, but by general readers.—Another new work of the same physician may here be mentioned. It relates to the diet most proper for indisposed or diseased persons; and the regulations which it contains are well-founded and judicious.

Plan d'un Cours, &c. Plan of a Course of practical Medicine for Diseases most prevalent among Soldiers, by N. P.

Gilbert, 8vo.—A pamphlet more distinguished by affected classification than by great merit.

Etudes de l'Homme, &c. Studies of physical and moral Man, considered in his different Ages, 8vo.—An ingenious and pleasing work, by Perreau.

Précis de l'Histoire des Hébreux, &c. A Summary of the History of the Hebrews, from the Time of Moses to the Reduction of Jerusalem by the Romans, 12mo.—The author, M. Mentelle, has only given those parts of the Jewish history which he considers as true; but many of his readers will probably differ from him in his opinion of the inauthentic nature of particular stories or circumstances related in the Old Testament, as a regard for the Bible is not entirely extinct even in France.

Les Annales, &c. The Annals of the French Republic, from the Establishment of the Constitution of the third Year, 6 vols. 8vo.—The first volume contains preliminary articles, tending to give a just idea of the state of France at the time from which the annals commence. In the second, not only military details are given, but accounts of the works of art and the productions of science and literature. The third volume comprehends political discussions, copies of treaties of peace and alliance, accounts of national festivals, public institutions, &c. In the fourth are military pieces; in the fifth and sixth, various literary intelligence, and *memoranda* respecting commerce, æconomics, &c. may be found.—The work is a collection of materials rather than a regular history.

Phraseologia Anglo-Germanica, &c. Anglo-German Phraseology; or, a Collection of more than Fifty Thousand Phrases, collected from the best English Classics, disposed in alphabetical Order, and faithfully translated into German, by Professor Haussner, 8vo. Strasbourg.—If at this time the German theatre is in high vogue in our metropolis, the compliment is returned to us on the continent; and the Germans are indefatigable students in our language. To assist them in our phraseology, the compiler of this work, with great labour, has selected a variety of phrases from our best authors; and it is a very good dictionary for Germans.

Vies des Enfants célèbres, &c. Lives of distinguished Children, 2 vols. 12mo.—A publication very proper for the young, as it points out models for their imitation.

Tableau de Lisbonne in 1796, &c. A Description of Lisbon in the Year 1796; followed by Letters written from Portugal on the ancient and modern State of that Kingdom, 8vo.—The writer has entered into copious details respecting the Portuguese capital and nation; but his strictures on man-

ners, customs, arts, government, &c. though frequently just, are too strongly marked with passion and prejudice.

Tableau de Cayenne, &c. A View of French Guiana.—We are informed, that the author of this work resided many months in that country; and his statements are considered as worthy of credit.

Œuvres d'Horace, &c. The Works of Horace, translated into French verse by Peter Daru, 2 vols. 8vo.—The difficulty of translating Horace into any modern language is generally acknowledged: we therefore need not be surprised that M. Daru's version gives, in numerous instances, an inadequate representation of the original.

Poësies, &c. Philosophical and descriptive Poems, by Authors of the eighteenth Century, 3 vols. 8vo.—Voltaire, Marmontel, Delille, Thomas, and Chamfort, are among the writers whose works have furnished the editor of these volumes with pleasing materials.

Lettres, &c. Original Letters from Rousseau to Madame de Luxembourg and other Persons.—These epistles were rescued from oblivion by Pougens; and, as they are deemed genuine, they will be read with pleasure by the admirers of the ingenious though eccentric philosopher.

Le Poëte, &c. The Poet, or Memoirs of a Man of Letters, written by himself, 4 vols. 12mo.—These volumes seem to contain some facts; but the greater part may be considered as the produce of invention. Upon the whole, the work is lively and entertaining.

Juliette et Dalmor, &c. Juliet and Dalmor, or the Lovers of the Cevennes, 2 vols.—A novel in which a pleasing simplicity prevails.

Sophie de Beaurégard:—A novel in the epistolary form, tracing the progress and effects of true love.

Les Orphelines, &c. The Orphans of Flower-Garden, 4 vols. 12mo.—It is some merit in a French novel, that it contains nothing immoral; and we can discover no other merit in this work.

H O L L A N D.

De Apokryfe Boeken, &c. The Apocryphal Books, from the Greek, vol. 1. Amsterdam, 1798.—Professor van Hamelsveld has accurately translated and illustrated the books in question.

Alterum Tentamen Anacreonteum, &c. A second Anacreontic Attempt, by Hœufft. Dordrecht. A French critic, speaking of this publication, says, 'Anacreon had become Callimachus under the elegant pen of M. Hœufft: but he is now himself again.' Rejecting the metre which he had before

chosen, M. Hœufft has now given to the poems of Anacreon a version strictly corresponding in that respect with the original.

G E R M A N Y.

Allgemeines Journal, &c. A Journal for all the Branches of Chemistry, 8vo. Leipzig, 1798.—This is a new periodical work, of which the editor is Dr. Scherer.

Versuch einer Mineralogischen Beschreibung, &c. An Attempt to exhibit an accurate Mineralogical Description of Landeck and its Environs, by Leopold de Buch, 4to. Breslau, 1797.—M. de Buch is a distinguished pupil of Werner; and his merit as a mineralogist is evinced by this publication.

Tabula Sceleti, &c. A view of a Female Skeleton, with a Description, by S. T. Sömmering. Frankfort.—This writer, being of opinion that no former representation gave a just idea of the skeleton of a woman, resolved to remedy the defect by superior accuracy of observation. He procured the body of a young and beautiful woman of Mentz, and, with the assistance of a mathematician, painter, and sculptor, produced a correct delineation of the skeleton.

Pinacothèque, &c. A Collection of Tables of general Utility for Multiplying and Dividing, 8vo. Berlin.—These useful tables are the work of Gruson.

Über den nächsten Zweck der Erziehung, &c. On the most essential Object of Education, according to the Principles of Kant, 8vo. Ratisbon.—Just remarks on education, drawn from the nature of the mind, are here given by professor Weiller, of Munich.

Vollständiger Lehrbegriff der Schwimmkunst, &c. A complete System of the Art of Swimming, translated from the Italian of Bernardi, and illustrated with Remarks, by Professor Kries, 2 vols. 8vo. Weimar.—This is a curious work, the produce of attentive consideration and long experience. The system is founded on an opinion contrary to that which has generally prevailed on this subject; for the specific gravity of the human body, according to Dr. Bernardi, is not greater than that of water.

Kritisches Griechisch Deutsches Handwörterbuch. A Critical Greek and German Dictionary, Vol. I. 8vo. Leipzig.—Professor Schneider is the compiler of this work, which is executed with the accuracy that might have been expected from such a philologist.

Selbstmord, &c. Suicide examined in its medical and moral Causes, with Rules for the Conduct of hypochondriac and melancholy Persons, by J. V. Muller. Franckfort.—This is not a work of great novelty or merit.

Psychologia Homerica, &c. An Inquiry into the Opinions of Homer concerning the Soul. Zullichau.—There is some merit in this dissertation, of which Halbkart (a pupil of Wolff, the editor of Homer) is the author.

Antidote au Congrès de Rastadt, &c. An Antidote to the Congress of Rastadt, or Plan for a new Political Balance of Europe. 1798.—The author of this performance first gives a sketch of the French revolution, which he represents as an evil of such an extraordinary and portentous nature, that, if it should not be crushed by external force, it will overturn every thing in its progress. He afterwards details his plan, which involves a new coalition of the chief powers of Europe, founded on such a basis as would impart concord and unity to their deliberations, vigour to their measures, and activity to their exertions. By such a confederacy, there might be a chance, he thinks, of preserving the civilised world from the revolutionary *furor*.—He writes with spirit; but some of his ideas are extravagant; and he is not always consistent with himself.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

Méthode Analytique des Fossiles, &c. Analysis of Fossils, by Professor Struve. Lausanne, 1797.—The author's scheme is principally founded on the exterior characters of fossils; and it therefore resembles that of Werner.

Mannichfaltigkeiten, &c. Various Pieces by Frederic Charles, Baron de Moser, 2 vols. 8vo. Zurich, 1796.—Many amusing anecdotes may be found in these volumes; and various instruction may also be gleaned from them.

S P A I N.

Elementos, &c. Elements of Chemistry, 3 vols. 4to. Madrid, 1798.—This work is a translation from the French of Chaptal.

Tratado instructivo, &c. An instructive practical Treatise on the Art of Dyeing: a performance of some merit.

Obras de Sappho, &c. The Works of Sappho, Alcæus, Simonides, and other Greek writers, of whose compositions there are few remains, translated into Spanish verse by J. and B. Canga Arguelles, 8vo. 1797.—Some of these pieces are well translated.

Historia de Sancho, &c. History of Sancho Panza from the Time of Don Quixote's Death, 2 vols.—It is perhaps unnecessary to observe, that this romance is greatly inferior to the celebrated work of Cervantes.

R U S S I A.

Lucumon, oder Nachrichten, &c. Lucumon, or Accounts of extraordinary Men in physical and moral Respects, with a View of the Wonders of Nature and Art in the History of Countries and Nations, calculated for Instruction and Entertainment. Riga.—This is a good collection of entertaining anecdotes, descriptions, &c. by which young people may be gradually led to higher inquiries. We are inclined to form a favorable opinion of the neighbourhood of Riga, when we observe so good an arrangement pursued in objects which, though they may seem trifling to many, are in reality of considerable importance. In England, extraordinary attention is now paid to the minds of children; and the Germans and some other nations, with reason, pursue the same plan, in providing proper books for childhood as well as manhood.

A R E V I E W
OF
P U B L I C A F F A I R S,
FROM
the Beginning of JANUARY to the End of APRIL, 1799.

G R E A T - B R I T A I N.

WITH regard to the probable accomplishment of the grand and comprehensive views of Great-Britain and her allies for the deliverance of Europe, and indeed of the whole civilised world, from the encroachments of Gallic democracy, the opinions of political observers will greatly differ. Many will apprehend, and many will be inclined to wish, that the influence of the new modes of thinking, both in religion and politics, may so weaken the efficacy of the old systems, as to aid the progress of the French arms; that, even where the troops of the *great nation* may never penetrate, its example may promote democratic revolutions; and that all the exertions of the confederates will be weak and nugatory, in a cause so repugnant to the feelings and sentiments of the generality of mankind. Others, on the contrary, will flatter themselves with the prospect of a general restoration of peace and order, consequent on the efforts of the coalition—efforts which the republican banditti of France, to whose criminal views the eyes of the world are now opened, will in vain attempt to counteract or op-

pose. We, who have repeatedly professed our attachment to a limited monarchy, cannot but be desirous of the maintenance of our constitution; and it is therefore our earnest wish that the enemy may receive such effectual checks as may produce humility and moderation, and promote a due sense of the blessings of peace and tranquillity.

While the British sovereign, intent on the scheme of European deliverance, endeavoured to augment his strength by new alliances, the parliament of his realm continued to deliberate on the means of defraying the expences of the war, and on other purposes of national expediency. The bill for the general taxation of income was sanctioned by the house of peers on the 8th of January, after a spirited debate, in which the duke of Bedford and lord Holland opposed the measure, while it was supported by the chancellor and lord Auckland.

The act not being fully intelligible to the generality of the people, various difficulties arose in the adjustment of the returns which should be made to the commissioners; and many of those who understood its clauses were slow in complying with the terms. By a new act, a later day was allowed for the returns; but not a few delayed the delivery of their statements beyond even the added time.

A great object of ministerial consideration at this time was the union with Ireland. Mr. Pitt was zealous for the scheme; and, as he had found so few difficulties or obstacles in his political career, he did not perhaps foresee the opposition with which his plan would be assailed. The parliamentary investigation of it was preceded by a message from the king, who desired the two houses to 'consider of the most effectual means of counter-acting and finally defeating the design,' in which the enemy persevered, 'of effecting the separation of Ireland from this kingdom,' and recommended 'such complete and final adjustment as might best tend to improve and perpetuate a connexion' essential to the security of both realms, and to 'augment and consolidate the strength, power, and resources, of the British empire.' When an address on this subject was proposed in the house of commons, Mr. Sheridan condemned the scheme of incorporation, and moved, though without ef-

fect, that the king should be requested not to listen to the counsel of those who would promote such a measure at the present crisis.

The plan of union was at length communicated to the commons, in a speech which excited the admiration of many, and fixed the attention of all. On the 31st of January, Mr. Pitt entered into a discussion of the subject, stated the principles by which he was guided, and developed the means which he deemed the most applicable to the formation of a beneficial and permanent union. As we have given a sketch of the leading features of this harangue in the critical department of our journal *, we shall, in this place, only intimate the substance of the eight propositions moved on this occasion. The three first related, in general terms, to the formation of one kingdom, and the continuance of the present settlement of the crown: the fourth imported that the united kingdom should be represented in the same parliament, a certain number of members being chosen to vote on the part of Ireland: the fifth respected the preservation of the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government, of the churches of England and Ireland, in the state in which they now subsist: the sixth allowed to the subjects of Ireland an equality of commercial privileges with those of Great-Britain: the seventh left to each kingdom the separate payment of the interest of the public debt; and the last tended to perpetuate the laws now in force, and the existing courts of judicature, with the permission, however, of such alterations as the combined legislature should occasionally deem expedient.—Mr. Sheridan endeavoured to refute the arguments by which the minister had strengthened his propositions; and contended, that the union, at this crisis, would be injurious to Ireland, and that, if it should be forced upon the inhabitants of that country, it would rather promote than baffle the views of the French. Dr. Laurence was also of opinion, that the measure was unseasonable, and that it would therefore be prudent to postpone the consideration of it till the Irish should be more generally willing to acquiesce in it. But, as only 15 members voted

* See the 453d page of our present volume.

against the motion for referring the propositions to a committee, while 140 appeared in favour of it, the discussion was allowed to proceed. On the 7th of February, two resolutions were moved by Mr. Sheridan: one was founded on the necessity of procuring the '*manifest, fair, and free* consent and approbation of the parliaments of the two countries;' the other tended to stigmatise, as 'an enemy to his majesty and to the constitution of his country,' every one who should endeavour to obtain the appearance of such consent and approbation, by employing the influence of government for the purpose of corruption or of intimidation. These motions were rejected after a short debate; and a long discussion followed. Mr. St.-John did not consider the scheme of union as necessary or expedient for the safety or the prosperity of Ireland. Mr. Grey wished for an union of hearts, affections, and interests; but he apprehended that the present measure would be productive of disunion, as discontent, distrust, and suspicion, were already the fruits of the proposition in Ireland. That evils existed in that kingdom, none, he said, would deny: but no good reasoner would infer, because they were visible under a separate legislature, that they had arisen from that circumstance, or that an incorporation with Great-Britain was the best or the only remedy for them. The chief authors of these evils were well known. Vain hopes had been raised among the Irish; alarms had been excited, discontent created, and animosities fostered; and the mischief produced by this unjustifiable conduct was used as a pretence for annihilating the liberty and independence of Ireland.—Mr. Dundas, not without ability, defended the proposed union, and expatiated on the advantages with which the like measure had been attended in Scotland. Mr. Windham imputed the disorders of the Hibernian realm to the nature of its constitution, the barbarous ignorance of the people, and the propagation of French principles. The prescription which appeared to him to promise the greatest remedial efficacy, was a melioration of the state of the lower classes; and this improvement, he thought, could only be effected by an infusion of British capital and British manners. An incorporation, he added, would best produce this effect. When other speakers had offered various remarks, a divi-

sion took place, with a great majority in favour of the court.

This interesting subject was again debated on the 11th of February; and Mr. Sheridan then appeared as an advocate for the emancipation of the catholics; but his motion to that effect did not meet with approbation. General Fitzpatrick, referring to the settlement with Ireland in 1782, affirmed that the present scheme was so far inconsistent with the agreement which had then been adjusted, as to deserve the stigma of breach of faith. Mr. Ryder denied that the agreement in question was intended to be final, or that it could justly preclude the adoption of any part of the new plan; and Mr. Pitt followed him on the same ground. Indeed, on a fair consideration of this point, we cannot concur with Mr. Fitzpatrick, as there is no breach of faith in proposing to a parliament which is left independent by one compact, a free investigation of the merits of a new convention, which may terminate in the unconstrained exchange of a separate legislature for the advantages of an incorporative union with another kingdom.

In the renewal of discussion, the probable benefits of the union were eloquently enforced by Mr. Addington, the speaker of the house. Mr. Hobhouse strongly opposed the measure, as he thought that it would be more pernicious than advantageous to Ireland, and that the introduction of Hibernian members into the general parliament would extend to an alarming height the influence of the crown. Mr. Peele compared the two countries to two commercial houses, the one opulent and respectable, the other destitute both of capital and credit; and he ridiculed the folly and obstinacy which the latter would evince, in refusing to accept from the rich house the offer of a liberal participation of the profits of the trade. The lords Temple and Morpeth were strenuous in behalf of the union; and the solicitor-general represented it as necessary for the correction of the vices of the Irish government, and the removal of the evils which harassed the country.

The resolutions being adopted, a conference on the subject ensued between the commons and the peers; and, on the 19th of March, lord Grenville entered fully into the

question, and concluded an elaborate harangue with recommending an union as the only measure which could secure Ireland from the grasp of France. Earl Fitzwilliam ventured to differ widely from the ministerial party; but the marquis of Lansdowne was an approver of most of the resolutions. The earl of Moira was friendly to any union which might be founded on such wise and liberal principles as might gain the cheerful assent of the Irish nation; but the plan now in contemplation did not appear to him to be one of that description. Lord Mulgrave, however, considered it as a judicious and promising scheme; and the earls of Carlisle and Westmorland signified their warm approbation of it. The peers concurring in the votes of the other house, an address was prepared, supported by the bishop of Llandaff and other speakers, and presented to the king, intimating the resolutions to which both assemblies had agreed. In this state the affair now rests. The wishes of the British parliament are fully manifested; and it remains for the Irish to examine with temper the nature of the offers made to them, and not suffer pride or animosity to obstruct their political prosperity or general welfare.

While the union was in agitation, a secret committee of the commons prosecuted an inquiry into the nature and extent of the Hibernian conspiracy, the particular connexions of the united Irishmen with the malcontents of Great-Britain, and the progressive views of the various societies instituted on pretence of reform. The report of this committee was completed in March: it is perspicuous and circumstantial, and will serve to guard the well-affected against seditious and treasonable associations.

When it was taken into consideration in a committee of the whole house, on the 19th of April, the minister expressed his conviction of the necessity of imposing additional restraints upon Jacobinism; and he not only proposed that the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act should be continued, but that a bill should be introduced for the more effectual suppression of unlawful societies, and the punishment of those persons who should be guilty of seditious practices.

Our limits will not allow us to dwell on the other parliamentary proceedings of this period. We will, therefore,

summarily mention, that Mr. Wilberforce again moved, in vain, for the abolition of the slave trade; that bills were brought forward for the grant of 12,000*l. per annum*, out of the consolidated fund, respectively, to the princes Edward and Ernest (now dukes of Kent and Cumberland), and for enabling his majesty to make a regular provision for the princess Amelia out of his hereditary revenue; and that Mr. Dundas, in opening the budget for India, represented our settlements in that part of the globe as being in a prosperous state, though the debts of the company had increased.

Adverting to the negotiatory concerns of Great-Britain, we may observe, that Mr. Thomas Grenville, brother of the secretary of state, was sent to the continent for the promotion of an Anti-Gallican confederacy. In his passage he was in great danger of perishing amidst the ice at the mouth of the Elbe; the ship in which he sailed was wrecked, and some lives were lost; but he had the good fortune to escape. When he arrived at Berlin, he strenuously endeavoured to draw the king of Prussia into an alliance with Great-Britain; but he found his exhortations fruitless, in consequence of the superior influence of Sieyes.

IRELAND.

Tranquillity is not yet restored to this country, which, for its defence against malcontents, depredators, and assassins, is still subjected, in a great measure, to military government. The disorders and insecurity of the realm served to stimulate the eagerness of the friends of the union; and, when the parliament re-assembled, on the 22d of January, the lord-lieutenant urged the two houses to pay particular attention to the means of improving the connexion between the realms. To the address proposed in the upper house, an amendment was offered by lord Powerscourt, tending to call in question the competency of the assembly to agree to a scheme of incorporation: but this suggestion was discountenanced; and the address was voted by a majority of 32. In the house of commons, the debate was remarkably long

and animated : but we cannot enter into a detail of it. Sir John Parnell conjured the house not to pledge itself to the support of a measure which, there was reason to think, would be highly injurious. Mr. George Ponsonby exposed the illiberality by which the conduct of Great-Britain towards Ireland had long been marked ; and he warmly deprecated the meanness and folly of surrendering the independence of the realm to an oppressive neighbour, and risking those advantages which an Irish government could of itself preserve and improve. Many strong speeches followed ; and the address was sanctioned by a majority of only two voices. The inhabitants of Dublin were so pleased with this result, which was considered as a virtual rejection of the measure, that the evening exhibited a general illumination in that city. On the report of the address, sir Laurence Parsons moved for the omission of that part which related to an union ; and, after a fresh display of spirited eloquence, the adversaries of the court prevailed by a difference of six votes. Some ministerial changes testified the displeasure of the court at the opposition to the scheme ; but the advocates for the independence of Ireland were not discouraged. On the 15th of February it was moved, that the house should assert the ' competency of an independent legislature to all wants and regulations, political and civil,' and should declare its continuance ' essential to the welfare and happiness of Ireland, and to her connexion with Great-Britain.' Though, on this occasion, the court had a majority of 20, it was deemed adviseable to suspend the scheme.

The budget was soon after opened by Mr. Corry, who had succeeded sir John Parnell as chancellor of the exchequer. Supplies, exceeding, nearly by a million, those of the year 1798, were readily voted ; and new taxes were found expedient.

A bill for the more effectual suppression of the rebellion was opposed by several members, as too violent and despotic ; but it was vindicated as necessary to prevent a relapse of the United Irishmen into insurrections ; and it at length passed into a law.

Many of the rebels, to whom transportation was promised

as an indulgence, in lieu of capital punishment, have been sent to the West-Indies, and others to different quarters. Their accomplices who remain in Ireland are turbulently active in some of the counties of Connaught, and in other parts of the kingdom; but they are not in a state of *organised insurrection*.

FRANCE.

The transactions of the French, and the events which concern them, have not been unimportant during the last four months. Their legislative proceedings have not, indeed, been interesting; but their martial operations have engrossed the attention of Europe.

The mal-contents of Belgium continuing to resist the troops of the directory, the latter received an augmentation in the beginning of the year. Fresh engagements ensued; and the forces of the government generally had the advantage; but there are still some remains of commotion.

While the French suffered their ministers at Rastadt to keep up the farce of negotiation, they prepared for a rupture with the emperor of Germany, whom, from his encouragement of the views of the court of Petersburg, and from other parts of his conduct, they considered as an enemy. They repeatedly remonstrated, in strong terms, against the approach of the Russian troops; but the northern army continued its march. In the mean time, the fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, after a very long blockade, fell under the power of the republicans, who thus gained possession of one of the keys of Germany.

The emperor not complying with the demand respecting the Russians, the French, on the 1st of March, issued a proclamation, intimating the necessity of taking precautions against the designs of their enemies, and yet professing a desire of maintaining peace. On the same day, general Jourdan crossed the Rhine; and his troops soon commenced their favourite operation of pillage. While he marched towards Ulm, Massena, with another army, advanced into

the country of the Grisons. On the 5th, he surprised some small posts; and, the next day, he attacked the Austrians at Coire, compelling the baron d'Auffenburg and about 3000 men to surrender themselves prisoners of war. The post of Feldkirch being justly deemed an important obstacle to his views of co-operating with Jourdan, several fierce attacks were made upon it; but so obstinately did the Austrians resist, that his men were repelled with great slaughter. He soon became master, however, of the three divisions of the Grison state; and the Engadine and the county of Bormio were invaded with success by a part of the army of Italy.

When hostilities had been thus renewed, war was declared in form by the directory. In a message delivered to the legislative bodies, it was affirmed, that the emperor had not only misunderstood the principle of the treaty of Campo-Formio, but neglected the execution of one of its chief articles; and that he had always been disinclined to peace. The cold reception of Bernadotte, the gross affront offered to that ambassador, the hypocrisy of the court of Vienna in the negotiation of Seltz, the deputation of an ambassador to Berlin and Petersburg, the reluctance to the admission of an envoy from the Cis-Alpine republic, the encouragement of the Russians in their march through Germany, and other instances of a disposition inimical to the French, were stated on this occasion as ample justifications of a recourse to arms.

The renewal of the war in Germany called the archduke Charles again into action; and his early operations in the present campaign did not diminish his former reputation. On the 21st of March, he ordered an attack to be made upon the army of Jourdan. The French centre was driven back with some loss, chiefly by the efforts of the Austrian cavalry. On the 25th, Jourdan, in the hope of regaining his former position, engaged the archduke near Stockach. He endeavoured to gain the defile of Ach, and gained some advantage in the earlier part of the conflict, the division of the count de Meerfeld being too weak to withstand him. The battle soon became more general;

and both parties signalised their courage. The prince de Furstenberg fell on the occasion; the prince of Anhalt-Bernburg was mortally wounded; and other gallant officers were sacrificed. The prince of Anhalt-Cothen particularly distinguished himself by his exertions. Where his *corps* acted, the choicest troops of the enemy were engaged, sometimes repelling their opponents, and at other times merely keeping them in check. At a critical time, some battalions attacked the French in the rear, and captured one half of a brigade; and the centre at length gave way. At the village of Walwis, the engagement was vigorous and obstinate, till night parted the combatants. The action was renewed in the morning, to the disadvantage of the French, who retreated towards Neustadt. In these two days, about 7000 men are supposed to have been killed or wounded in both armies. During these operations general Staray was employed in driving the enemy out of the duchy of Wirtemberg; and the greater part of the French army hastily repassed the Rhine. This fortunate beginning of the campaign gave high confidence to the Austrians; and the archduke prepared with alacrity for the prosecution of his success, while Jourdan returned to Paris in disgust.

The Austrians now advanced towards Schaffhausen; and the archduke sent a detachment to dislodge the French from that town. Several attacks were necessary for the execution of this order; but, on the 13th of April, count Nauendorf succeeded in the attempt. The entrenchments near Constance were also assaulted with success; and that city was fiercely cannonaded; a service in which an officer of the name of Williams, with a flotilla of gun-boats on the neighbouring lake, boldly joined. During the remainder of the month, the operations in this part of the theatre of war were less important, as the indisposition of the imperial general occasioned an interval of inaction.

The French, in the mean time, maintained their ground in Egypt, defending themselves with spirit against the occasional attacks of the natives. When they deemed themselves sufficiently secure in that country, a part of the army was sent into Syria, where some success attended the in-

vaders. During this expedition, the *savans* who had left their country, to *civilise* the Egyptians amidst the din of arms, held academical meetings at Grand Cairo, and discussed various topics of science and civil œconomy.

Near the close of April a considerable fleet sailed from the harbour of Brest, destined for some enterprize of importance. It was at first supposed that the armament was intended for the invasion of Ireland; but this opinion soon gave way to other conjectures. It is said, that some of our cruisers have descried this fleet near the coast of Portugal. Where-ever it may be found, we have little doubt of the success of our fleet in an eventual engagement.

The late elections for the two councils have been attended with tumults in some of the departments. The anarchists have prevailed in some places; and many individuals who are known to be hostile to the directory, and even some persons who for that reason were rejected in the last year by the arbitrary pentarchs, have been chosen by the people.

GERMANY.

The farce at Rastadt is now at an end. The congress has been dissolved; and the fate of the empire depends on the violent decision of arms, not on the mildness of negotiation.

Before the plenipotentiaries desisted from their conferences, the French, from a desire of exciting odium against the emperor for his selfish ambition and his inattention to the interests of the Germanic body, and also of augmenting the jealousy entertained of the views of that prince by the court of Berlin, published a state paper, which they styled the 'secret articles and additional convention of the treaty of Campo-Formio.' It appears from this paper, which has the air of authenticity, that his imperial majesty was to be assisted by the influence of the French in the acquisition of the archbishopric of Saltzburg, and other territories; that, besides consenting to the cession of the left

bank of the Rhine, he acquiesced in the intended encroachments of the French, by promising the evacuation of Mentz, Mannheim, and other considerable towns and fortresses; and that the king of Prussia was to gain no accession of dominion.

After the renewal of the continental war, the count de Metternich protested against the continuance of the deliberations of the congress; and, declaring that all the proceedings from its commencement were null, retired from Rastadt. Some of the remaining plenipotentiaries wished to proceed with the treaty; but the majority considered the congress as virtually, though not formally, dissolved; and preparations were made for departure. It was intimated to the French ministers, on the 28th of April, that their persons would be safe, but that they must retire within twenty-four hours. They had scarcely quitted the town, when a party of hussars approached, and attacked them with sanguinary violence. Bonnier and Roberjot were barbarously murdered by these ruffians; but Jean De-Bry escaped with life, though not without many wounds. Every man of honour must reprobate such inhumanity; but, in some of the prostitute prints of the times, the zealots of war and assassination have even attempted to justify the act!

The resentment of the French displayed itself in menaces of vengeance, when the report of the outrage reached Paris. A funeral *fête* was ordered in the different departments; and various measures were proposed in the two councils, to render the infamy of the assassins universally notorious.

The war will, in all probability, occasion very considerable changes in the state of Germany; but, whether those changes will be advantageous or detrimental to the head of the empire, we cannot clearly foresee. This prince seems to be particularly desirous of the acquisition of Bavaria; but his views will be checked by the connexions between the French and the duke of Deux Ponts, who has lately succeeded to the dignity of elector of the Palatinate and of Bavaria, on the decease of Charles Theodore, and has manifested a strong animosity against the imperial potentate. Whether

the French or their enemies prevail, the power of the new elector, we may suppose, will not remain undiminished. His pretended friends may democratise his dominions, or his imperial neighbour may add them to the Austrian possessions.

SWITZERLAND.

The unfortunate inhabitants of this country feel all the miseries of Gallic tyranny. In the injurious treatment to which they are exposed, despotism, rapacity, and cruelty, are united: they are enslaved, plundered, and oppressed in various modes. Martial law has been introduced into the cantons; and the people have been required, on pain of instant death, to take arms in support of their tyrants. Some bold spirits have attempted to shake off this yoke; but all insurrections have been speedily quelled.

The French cannot repose much confidence in the service of those whom they have compelled to join their army; and, if the Austrians should penetrate into the interior of Switzerland, they will be hailed as friends by the majority of the inhabitants, who, thus assisted, may be enabled to expel their oppressors.

As the hope of exciting a general insurrection in Switzerland had induced the archduke Charles to approach that country, he thought proper to prepare the way for the favorable reception of his army by assuring the Swiss of the moderation of his views. Before his illness checked his advance, he issued a proclamation, accusing the French of having unjustly re-commenced hostilities, and of having calumniated his imperial majesty by an imputation of the ambitious purpose of dismembering Switzerland; declaring in strong terms his friendly disposition towards the cantons, and his desire of restoring them to that independence and those privileges of which they had been deprived by Gallic usurpation; and promising, in return for the co-operation of the inhabitants, a dereliction of those measures

of pecuniary sequestration and commercial prohibition which the conduct of the Helvetic directory had constrained the court of Vienna to adopt. That the Swiss may recover their independence, is the general wish; but the power of the French may long obstruct such an event.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The chief sway, at the court of Madrid, appears to be exercised by the queen, who favors the partisans of the French republic, though she does not enter with vigor into the war against the English. Her profligacy is severely stigmatised by those who call themselves Anti-Jacobins; but, if it were much more glaring than it is, these men would readily pronounce her a virtuous princess, on her accession to the grand confederacy. They can see only through the mists of prejudice and party: equity and liberality have no influence over their minds.

In Portugal some British troops are yet stationed, for the defence of the kingdom against the dreaded invasion: but they are not sufficiently numerous to promise an effectual resistance; and no confident hopes are entertained of the vigorous co-operation of the Portuguese army.

I T A L Y.

The French invasion of the Neapolitan realm soon became successful. The republicans pressed onward with zeal and rapidity; and the weak and effeminate Italians were unable to withstand the torrent. The king and general Mack, driven from the Roman territory, hastened back to the south-east with their defeated and diminished forces; and the latter undertook the defence of Capua, which had been invested by Championet: but he did not sustain a long siege; for he agreed, on the 10th of January, to the surrender of

the town, the payment of ten millions of livres, and other terms dictated by the besiegers.

The city of Naples was, at this time, in a state of great confusion. Many of the inhabitants began to be riotous and turbulent: they accused Mack of misconduct and treachery, and refused to acquiesce in an armistice which he had concluded with the French. The lazaroni rose in a body, and committed many outrages and barbarities, the supposed partisans of the French being the chief objects of their fury. Being reinforced by some parties of militia, as well as by the peasants from the neighbouring villages, they marched towards Capua to meet the invaders; and an obstinate battle ensued with a part of the republican army. The French columns repeatedly gave way; and they would perhaps have been totally defeated, if Championet had not arrived with succours. The Italians were now repulsed in their turn; and, after their return to the capital, new scenes of disorder appeared. The French approaching to take possession of the city, the lazaroni and their associates furiously opposed their entrance, and defended different posts with great valor and pertinacity. At length, on the 23d, after a horrible effusion of blood, Championet entered the town; and his success was followed by a course of depredation and tyranny.

Before the reduction of Naples, the king and queen, sensible of their danger, had accepted the protection of the fleet commanded by lord Nelson, and, after a tempestuous voyage, had safely arrived in Sicily. Ferdinand was received at Palermo with loyal acclamations of joy; and the island continues subject to his sway. His misfortunes would excite more general compassion, if he did not bear them with apathy and indifference.

The disturbers of the peace of Italy have at length thought proper to democratise the aristocratic republic of Lucca, a state governed with prudence and moderation. The gates of the chief town were forced, the public buildings pillaged, and the inhabitants exposed to severe exactions.

The Tuscan state has also undergone a revolution. War

was declared against the grand duke in March by the French directory, on pretence of his perfidy towards the republic, and his favourable inclinations towards the English. On the 24th, the town and harbour of Leghorn were subjected to Gallic dominion; and, on the following day, Florence was seized by the enemy. Thus dispossessed by a force which he could not withstand, the grand duke retired with his family, and directed his course to Vienna. So frequent are the subversions of old governments in these revolutionary times, that the fate of Tuscany made little impression on the public mind.

In the northern parts of Italy, the French have been less successful. On the 26th of March, they attacked the Austrians near Legnago, but met with such a spirited resistance, that they were obliged to retreat after a considerable loss of men. Other posts were assaulted on the same day, with no small loss on both sides. Four days afterwards, the republicans advanced with an intention of surprising and storming Verona; but their aims were baffled by the vigilance of lieutenant-general Kray, who, with little difficulty, routed their army. On the 5th of April, he attacked them in the morning near Magnan; and the action was maintained with great firmness till night. In this engagement, about 2000 Austrians, according to the official accounts of the court of Vienna, were killed or wounded; while the French, who were totally defeated, are supposed to have sustained a much greater loss.

In the Tirol, the French were also unfortunate. The count de Bellegarde engaged them near Tauffers, that he might prevent them from establishing themselves in that quarter. His left wing seized a hill which commanded their right flank; but they maintained their chief position for some time, and harassed the assailants with a very brisk fire; and his right was resisted with still greater vigor. When the conflict became general, the courage and resolution of both parties seemed equally balanced. At length, by the aid of the commanding eminence, the imperialists gained the advantage, and drove their adversaries beyond Tauffers. The action was still continued; and the French

were forced to abandon various posts which they had successively occupied.

These defeats seemed to confound the republicans, who precipitately fled in different directions, while many of their stragglers were made prisoners by the Austrian detachments. Peschiera was invested by a part of the victorious army; and Mantua was subjected to a blockade. The people in this neighbourhood, it is said, gave evident marks of attachment to their former government, and of hatred to the French intruders.

The arrival of a Russian army in Italy promised additional success to the cause of the confederates. Field-Marshal Suwarrow, or Souwaroff, distinguished by his *exploits* in Poland, was placed by the emperor Paul at the head of those troops which had been selected in the north for the restoration of social order to the continent of Europe; and, when he reached the scene of action in Italy, he prepared to improve those advantages which had been gained by the valor of the Austrians. A considerable number of the latter having joined his army, he advanced into the Milanese territory with about 45,000 men. He found the posts near the Adda well fortified; but, not being one of those generals who are easily discouraged, he ordered the army, on the 27th of April, to force the passage of the river. One division crossed near Brivio, by means of a flying bridge; and the rest passed over in defiance of all obstacles.

The battle which followed was gallantly contested. The French, near Pozzo, had at first the advantage, and were on the point of turning the right wing of the combined host; but their views were frustrated by the opportune efforts of a party which assailed them on the left flank, and routed that part of their force. From other posts they were dislodged about the same time; and, at Bertero in particular, a division under general Serrurier was obliged to submit to captivity. It is affirmed, that about 6000 of the French fell on this occasion, and that above 5000 were made prisoners. On the 30th, the field-marshal took possession of Milan, while the vanquished fled in extreme disorder.

The severe checks to which the French arms have thus

been exposed, may perhaps have a good effect in promoting a pacification, unless the victorious allies should be so elate with occasional success, as to neglect an opportunity of terminating the war with honor.

T U R K E Y.

The boasted *vigor* of the Porte has not been signally displayed since the late declaration of war. The Turkish forces, however, have not been wholly inactive, though they have not expelled Buonaparte and his army from Egypt, or performed any important service, except that of co-operating with the Russians in the re-capture of Corfu. A small island in the harbour of that town was attacked on the 1st of March; and, after a brisk cannonade from the ships of war, the troops made a descent, and soon reduced the island. The outworks of the town were also assaulted with success; and, the next morning, the garrison capitulated, on condition of being conveyed to Toulon, with a proviso that, for one year and a half, none of the men should bear arms against the Turks, Russians, English, or Neapolitans. The *Leander*, which had been taken by the French in its way from Egypt, was found in the harbour.

Sir Sidney Smith has been sent to Constantinople by his Britannic majesty, to super-intend the maritime affairs of the Turkish government. An officer of his talents and experience may prove a very useful adviser, if the Turks should prove docile and tractable; and, though they would rather learn naval or military tactics from a person of their own persuasion than from one whom they deem an infidel, they will probably, in the present danger of their empire, endeavour to improve under any respectable individual, who may be qualified for the task of instruction.

R U S S I A.

The zeal of the northern emperor for the prosecution of the war has obtained great applause from the friends of the

armed coalition; and, for his eagerness to check the progress of Jacobinical opinions in his own territories, he has also been highly praised. He promotes, both by laws and by arms, the cause in which he has been persuaded to engage; and he looks forward with confidence to the success of both.

He has concluded a formal treaty of alliance with the grand signor, for eight years. Its stipulations are clear and explicit; but they do not demand particular notice.

NORTH-AMERICA.

The Trans-Atlantic republic is agitated with strong dissensions. Those who are unfriendly to the measures of the government are loud and vehement in their clamors; and, on the other hand, the supporters of the prevailing system vindicate their conduct with spirit. The proceedings of the congress, amidst these disputes, are judicious; and the defensive preparations against the French are not relaxed.

The late act against aliens, and that which provides for the more effectual suppression of seditious practices, are so obnoxious to the *anti-federal party* (as the opponents of the measures of government are styled), that many petitions have been presented to the congress for the repeal of those statutes. It is affirmed by this party, that the acts in question are palpable invasions of the constitution of the United States, and are in themselves null and void, as they allow the exercise of powers not recognised in the system upon which the government was established; and that the prosecution of such measures will tend to transform the republican administration into a mixed monarchy. In the legislative assemblies of some of the states, warm debates have occurred on this subject; but it is not probable that the acts will soon be repealed.

In the financial estimates of the republic, above 4,200,000 dollars are represented as necessary for defraying the charges of the army; but the sum demanded for the naval depart-

ment is less considerable. A loan was negotiated to the amount of five millions of dollars : and, from the spirit and confidence of the opulent, it was speedily completed.

We are informed, that it is the intention of the rulers of this state to open a new negotiation with the French, and that three envoys are appointed for that purpose. The success of such an application is doubtful ; but some will perhaps think that no doubts ought to arise on the subject, as the rejection may be deemed certain.

WEST-INDIES.

An account of some naval operations in the bay of Honduras reached England in January last. The Spaniards prepared a flotilla, consisting of thirty-one vessels, manned with 500 seamen and 2000 soldiers ; and, with this armament, they hoped to expel the English from their settlements in the bay. In September, the hostile ships appeared in a channel leading to the British posts ; and Bocca-Negra (or Black-Mouth, as the commander was ludicrously styled) encountered captain Moss with spirit ; but he was at length obliged to retreat with a loss not inconsiderable. We do not learn that the Spaniards have since renewed the attempt.

In the island of St. Domingo, general Toussaint's views of independence are likely to be checked and frustrated. Rigaud, who has a greater degree of military skill, and a more determined spirit than Toussaint, has been encouraged by the French to act against him ; but of his proceedings, or of the recent affairs of the island, we have no correct information.

EAST-INDIES.

Intelligence of a pleasing nature has lately been received from the governor of Bengal. It appears, that many French adventurers had successively repaired to the Dekan, and had

met with encouragement from the nizam, who permitted them to muster an army of his subjects, and instruct them in military manœuvres. The earl of Mornington, jealous of the views of the strangers, sent a considerable force into the Dekan. The French were disarmed, and led to Calcutta; and the nizam was obliged to sign a treaty, by which he was bound to prohibit natives of France from serving in his army, or residing at his court; so powerful is the British influence in India!

The sultan Tippoo, not having relinquished the hope of attacking the English with success, has renewed his intrigues among the native princes, with a view of procuring their assistance. But it appears, that they are unwilling to endanger themselves by embarking in his schemes, or to risque the vengeance of the British rulers of India, who, aware of his turbulent disposition, maintain a respectable army, and provide for the defence of the country with vigilance and spirit.

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